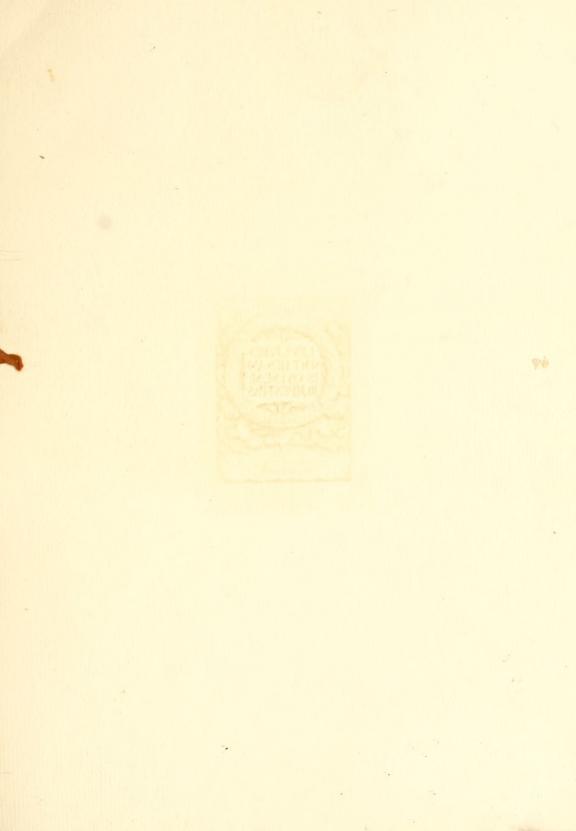


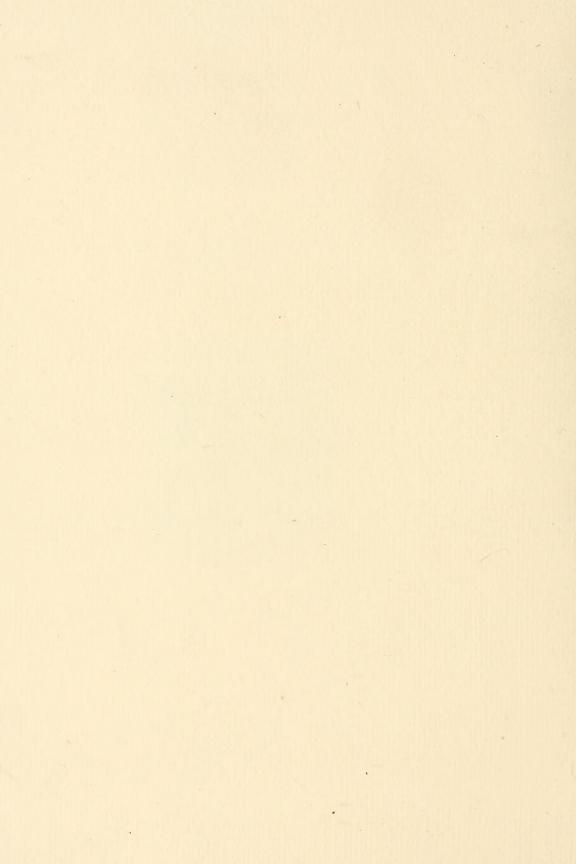


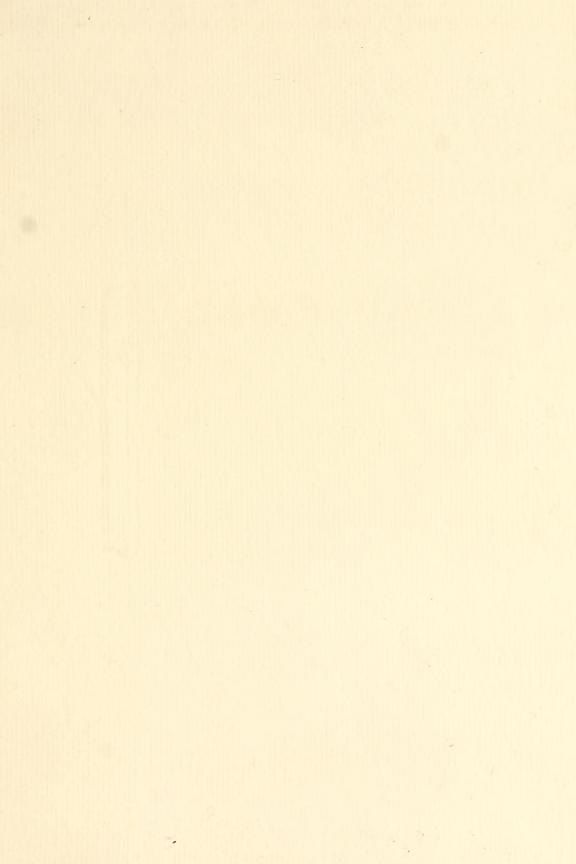
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From the ORIGINAL PICTURE in Gloucester Palace.

# W O R K S

OFTHE

WILLIAM WARBURTON,
LORD BISHOP OF GLOUCESTER.

IN SEVEN VOLUMES.

YOLUME THE FIRST.

LONDON,

PRINTED BY JOHN NICHOLS:

AND SOLD BY T. CADELL, IN THE STRAND.

MDCCLXXXVIII.

## ADVERTISEMENT.

HE Reader will expect some account of the Life, Writings, and Character of the Author to be prefixed to this complete edition of his Works. He is therefore informed, that a Discourse to that effect hath been prepared, and will be published; but not now, for reasons that will be seen hereafter. However, it may be proper to add, that the purchaser of this edition will be entitled to a Copy of the Discourse, whenever it comes out, on his producing a ticket, which for that purpose will be delivered to him by the Bookseller.

All I have to fay, at present, of the Author's Works, is, That they have been printed carefully from his last corrections and improvements; and arranged in that order, which was judged most convenient.

Of the new tracts, included in this edition, the most considerable is, The NINTH BOOK of the Divine Legation; printed, so far as it goes, by the Author himself, but Vol. I.

left unfinished. This Discourse must be interesting to the reader; but will not appear to have all the novelty which he may expect. The reason is, that the Author had laid aside all thoughts of compleating this book for many years, and had, in the mean time, employed some parts of it in his other Works. From these, when he at length resumed that intention, he extracted many passages, which are now again inserted in their place.

Thus much I thought fit to fay of this additional Book, that the Reader may come the better prepared to the perusal of it. For the rest, he is referred to the Author's Life, at large.

Great Ruffel-Street, Bloomfbury, Ecb. 6, 1788.

R. WORCESTER.

A

# DISCOURSE,

BY WAY OF

GENERAL PREFACE

TO THE QUARTO EDITION OF

BISHOP WARBURTON'S WORKS.

[Entered at Stationers Hall.]

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#### CORRECTIONS.

- P. 26. l. 17. for in read bin.
- P. 108. note, last line but one, for unica r. unico.
  - P. 110. l. 14. for predecessor's r. predecessors.
  - P. 125. l. 4. for representing r. repressing.
  - P. 143. l. 2. for p. 24. r. p. 30.

## THE LIFE OF THE AUTHOR.

FIRST PRINTED IN 1794.

WILLIAM WARBURTON was descended from an antient and very considerable family in Cheshire, at the head of which is the present Sir Peter Warburton, baronet, of Arley, in that county.

I leave the rest to the Genealogist; and go no farther back in his pedigree than to his grandsather, of the same name, who distinguished himself in the civil wars of the last century. He was of the Royal party, and shewed his zeal and activity in that cause by serving under Sir George Booth at the affair of Chester. I mention this little circumstance chiefly for the use I shall make of it elsewhere. All that I know more of him, is, That he married Frances, daughter of Robert Awsield of Etson, in the county of Nottingham, by whom he had three sons; the second of whom, George, was Mr. Warburton's father.

It feems probable that upon this marriage he removed into Nottinghamshire. His residence was at Shelton, a village about six miles from Newark, where he died.

Mr.

Mr. George Warburton, the fecond son, as I observed, of William Warburton, Esq. of Shelton, was bred to the law. He settled at Newark, where he practised as an attorney, and was particularly esteemed for his integrity in that profession.

He married Elizabeth, daughter of William Hobman, Alderman of Newark, and had by this marriage five children, George, William, Mary, Elizabeth, and Frances.

George died very young. William (the subject of this memoir) was born at Newark, Dec. 24, 1698. He was first put to school there under Mr. Twells, whose son afterwards married his sister, Elizabeth: but he had the chief part of his education at Okeham, in Rutlandshire, under Mr. Wright. Here he continued till the beginning of the year 1714; when his cousin, Mr. Warburton (who also bore the name of William), being made head master of the school at Newark, he returned to his native place, and was, for a short time, under the care of that learned and respectable person, of whom more will be said presently. I only now add; that he was father to the reverend Mr. Thomas Warburton, the present very worthy Archdeacon of Norsolk, to whom I am indebted for the particulars here mentioned, concerning his family.

I cannot, I confess, entertain the reader of this narrative with those encomiums which are so commonly lavished on the puerile years of eminent men. On the best enquiry, quiry, I have been able to make, I do not find that, during his stay at school, he distinguished himself by any extraordinary efforts of genius or application. My information authorizes me to go no further than to say, That he loved his book, and his play, just as other boys did. And, upon reflexion, I am not displeased with this modest testimony to his merit. For I remember what the best judges have thought of premature wits. And we all know that the mountain-oak, which is one day to make the strength of our sleets, is of slower growth than the saplings, which adorn our gardens.

But, although no prodigy of parts or industry in those early years, with a moderate share of each, he could not fail of acquiring by the age of sixteen (the time when he left school) a competent knowledge of Greek and Latin under such masters, as those of Okeham and Newark.

It had been his misfortune to lose his father very early. He died in 1706; and the care of his family devolved, of course, upon his widow; who, as we have seen, gave her son the best school-education; and, in all respects, approved herself so good a woman, as well as parent, that her children paid her all possible respect: her son, in particular (all whose affections were naturally warm), gave her every proof of duty and observance, while she lived, and, after her death, retained so tender a regard to her memory, that he seldom spake of her but with tears.

The

The circumstances of the family could be but moderate; and when Mr. Warburton had now sinished his education at school, he was destined by his friends to that profession, which is thought to qualify men best for the management of their own assairs, and which his father had followed with so much credit in that neighbourhood.

He was accordingly put out clerk to Mr. Kirke, an eminent attorney of Great Markham, in Nottinghamshire, in April, 1714, and continued with that gentleman five years, i. e. till the spring of the year 1719. Tradition does not acquaint us, how he acquitted himself in his clerkship. Probably, with no signal assiduity. For now it was that the bent of his genius appeared in a passionate love of reading, which was not lessened, we may believe, but increased, by his want of time and opportunity to indulge it.

However, in spite of his situation, he found means to peruse again and digest such of the classic authors as he had read at school, with many others which he understood to be in repute with men of learning and judgement. By degrees he, also, made himself acquainted with the other elementary studies; and, by the time his clerkship was out, had laid the foundation, as well as acquired a taste, of general knowledge.

Still, the opinion and expectation of his friends kept him in that profession, to which he had been bred. On the expiration of his clerkship, he returned to his family at Newark:

Newark; but whether he practifed there or elsewhere as an attorney, I am not certainly informed. However the love of letters growing every day stronger in him, it was found adviseable to give way to his inclination of taking Orders: the rather, as the seriousness of his temper and purity of his morals concurred, with his unappeasible thirst of knowledge, to give the surest presages of future eminence in that profession.

He did not venture, however, all at once to ruth into the church. His good understanding, and awful sense of religion, suggested to him the propriety of making the best preparation he could, before he offered himself a candidate for the facred character. Fortunately for him, his relation, the Master of Newark School, was at hand to give him his advice. And he could not have put himself under a better direction. For, besides his classical merit (which was great), he had that of being an excellent Divine, and was a truly learned as well as good man.

To him then, as foon as his refolution was taken of going into Orders, he applied for affishance, which was afforded him very liberally. "My father (fays Mr. Arch-"deacon Warburton in a letter to me) employed all the time he could spare from his school in instructing him, and used to sit up very late at night with him to affish him in his studies." And this account I have heard consirmed by his pupil himself; who used to enlarge with pleasure

pleasure on his obligations to his old tutor; and has celebrated his theological and other learning in a handsome Latin epitaph, which he wrote upon him after his death.

At length he was ordained Deacon the 22d of December, 1723, in the cathedral of York, by Archbishop Dawes: and even then he was in no haste to enter into Priest's Orders, which he deferred taking till he was full twenty-eight years of age, being ordained Priest by Bishop Gibson in St. Paul's, London, March the 1st, 1726-7.

Some will here lament that the precious interval of nine years, from his quitting school in 1714 to his taking Orders, was not spent in one of our universities, rather than his private study, or an attorney's office. And it is certain, the disadvantage to most men would have been great. But an industry, and genius, like his, overcame all difficulties. It may even be conceived, that he derived a benefit from them. As his faculties were of no common size, his own proper exertion of them probably tended more to his improvement, than any assistance of tutors and colleges could have done. To which we may add, that living by himself, and not having the sashionable opinions of a great society to bias his own, he might acquire an enlarged turn of mind, and strike out for himself, as he clearly did, an original cast both of thought and composition;

Fastidire lacus et rivos ausus apertos:

while

while his superior sense, in the mean time, did the office of that authority, which, in general, is sound so necessary to quicken the diligence, and direct the judgement, of young students in our universities.

The fact is, that, without the benefit of an Academical education, he had qualified himself, in no common degree, for Deacon's Orders in 1723; and from that time till he took Priest's Orders in the beginning of the year 1727, he applied himself diligently to complete his studies, and to lay in that fund of knowledge, which is requisite to form the consummate Divine. For to this character he reasonably aspired; having that ardour of inclination, which is the earnest of success, and feeling in himself those powers which invigorate a great mind, and push it on irresistibly in the pursuit of letters.

The fruits of his industry, during this interval, appeared in some pieces, composed by him for the improvement of his taste and style, and afterwards printed (most of them without his name) to try the judgement of the publick. As he never thought sit to reprint or revise them, they are omitted in this edition. But they are such as did him no discredit; on the contrary, they shewed the vigour of his parts, and the more than common hopes, which might be entertained of such a writer.

Among these blossoms of bis youth (to borrow an expression from Cowley) were some notes, communicated to

Mr. Theobald, and inferted in his edition of Shakespear; which seems to have raised a general idea of his abilities, before any more important proof had been given of them. But of this subject more will be said in its place.

It was, also, in this scason of early discipline, while his mind was opening to many literary projects, that he conceived an idea, which he was long pleafed with, of giving a new edition of Velleius Paterculus. He was charmed with the elegance of this writer; and the high credit in which emendatory criticism (of which Paterculus stood much in need) was held in the beginning of this century, occasioned by the dazzling reputation of such men as Bentley and Hare, very naturally feduced a young enterprizing scholar into an attempt of this nature. he proceeded in this work, I cannot fay: but a specimen of it afterwards appeared in one of our literary journals, and was then communicated to his friend, Dr. Middleton; who advised him very properly to drop the design, as not worthy of bis talents and industry, which, as he says, instead of trifling on words, seems calculated rather to correct the opinions and manners of the world.

These juvenile essays of his pen, hasty and incorrect, as they were, contributed, no doubt, very much to his own improvement. What essect they had on his reputation, and how soon they raised it to a considerable height among his friends, will be seen from the following curious fact.

In the year 1726, a dispute arose among the lawyers about the judicial power of the Court of Chancery. It is immaterial to observe on what points the controversy turned, or with what views it was agitated. It opened with a tract, called, The History of the Chancery; relating to the Judicial Power of that Court, and the Rights of the Master; printed without a name; but written, as was generally known, by a Mr. Burrough; and so well received by the Lord Chancellor King, that he rewarded the Author of it, the same year, with a Mastership in Chancery.

To this book an answer presently appeared, under the name of, A Discourse of the Judicial Authority of the Master of the Rolls; and so well composed, that they who favoured the cause of the Historian, saw it must suffer in his hands, if it were not supported by some better writer than himself, who was evidently no match for the Discourser.

In this exigency, he was advised by one of his friends (I forget, or never heard, his name) to have recourse to Mr. Warburton, as a person very capable of supplying his desects. Accordingly, when he had prepared the proper materials for a reply, he obtained leave to put them into Mr. Warburton's hands, and afterwards spent some time with him in the country; where, by their joint labours, the whole was drawn out and digested into a sizable volume, which came out in 1727, and was entitled, The Legal Judicature in Chancery sated. This book was so manifestly

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superior to the History, that such of the profession as were not in the secret, wondered at Mr. Burrough's proficiency in the art of writing; and the Lord Chancellor King, as much as any body. The author of the Discourse saw it concerned him to take notice of such an adversary, and in 1728 re-printed his work "with large additions—together "with a Preface occasioned by a book entitled, The Legal "Judicature in Chancery stated." And with this reply, I believe, the dispute closed.

Many years afterwards (the fecret being now of no confequence) Mr. Warburton chanced to mention, in conversation, to Mr. Charles Yorke, the part he had taken in this fquabble: when Mr. Yorke smiled, and said he fancied he was not aware who had been his antagonist; and then named his father, the Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, who, though Attorney General at the time, had undertaken to plead the cause of his relation, Sir Joseph Jekyll, then Master of the Rolls.—But I have dwelt, perhaps, too long on this little anecdote.

Upon Mr. Warburton's taking Priest's Orders, Sir Robert Sutton procured for him the small vicarage of Griesley, in. Nottinghamshire; and in 1728 presented him to the rectory of Brand-Broughton, in the diocese of Lincoln. He was, also, the same year, and, I suppose, by the same interest, put upon the King's list of Master of Arts, created on his Majesty's visit to the university of Cambridge.

Brand-

Brand-Broughton was a preferment of some value, and, from its situation in the neighbourhood of Newark, pleased him very much. Here then he fixed himself, with his samily, and spent the best part of his life, that is, from 1728 to 1746.

They who are unacquainted with the enthusiasm which true genius inspires, will hardly conceive the possibility of that intense application, with which Mr. Warburton pursued his studies in that retirement. Impatient of any interruptions, he spent the whole of his time that could be spared from the duties of his parish, in reading and writing. His constitution was strong, and his temperance extreme. So that he needed no exercise but that of walking; and a change of reading, or study, was his only amusement.

His mother and fifters, who lived with him and were apprehensive of the hurt he might do himself by this continued industry, would invite themselves to drink coffee with him in his study after dinner, and contrive to lengthen their stay with him as much as they could. But when they had retired, they saw no more of him that evening; and his sister, Mrs. Frances Warburton, told me, that he usually sate up a great part of the night. What is most extraordinary, the vigour of his parts was such, that his incessant labour neither wearied his spirits, nor affected his health.

In

In this way it was, that he acquired that habit of deep thinking, with that extensive erudition, which afterwards astonished the reader in his works; and made himself acquainted with the whole range of polite and elegant learning, in the way of diversion, and in the interval of his graver studies.

I express myself with exact propriety. For it was his manner at this time (and the habit continued with him through life) to intermix his literary pursuits in such fort as to make the lighter relieve the more ferious; and these again, in their turn, temper and correct the other. He was passionately fond of the more sublime poets, and (what is very uncommon) had almost an equal relish for works of wit and humour. One or other of these books he had always lying by him, and would take up when he found himself fatigued with study; and, after spending some time in this fort of reading, was so much refreshed by it, that he returned with new life to the work he was upon; and fo made these amusements, which are apt to get the mastery of common minds and to exhaust their whole force, only subservient to his more important meditations.

And this humour (to observe it by the way) of associating the so different powers of reason and sancy in the course of his studies, passed into his style, and indeed formed one distinctive character of it. For in all his wri-

tings,

tings, on whatever subject, you see him, occasionally, ennoble his expression by picturesque imagery, or enliven it by strokes of wit: And this (though the practice be against rule) with so much ease, and with so little affectation, that none but a very captious, or very dull, reader can take offence at it.

With that passion for letters, which, as I observed, transported Mr. Warburton at this time, the sobriety of his judgement is to be admired. The little taste he had had of fame in the early publications, before alluded to, did not corrupt his mind, or seduce him into a premature ambition of appearing as an author in form, till he had fully qualified himself, by the long course of reading and meditation, now mentioned, to sustain that character. It was not till the year 1736 that he published the first of those works, on which his great reputation is raised. This was, The Alliance betwixt Church and State: the occasion, and end, and substance of which work cannot be expressed in sewer or clearer terms, than his own.

After a short historical view of religious parties in England, from the Reformation downwards; of the discordant notions entertained of Religious establishments; and of the heats and animosities which those notions had produced: he proceeds thus——

"In this ferment, and in this embroiled condition, the 
"Author of the Alliance between Church and State found 
"the

"the fentiments of men concerning religious Liberty and Establishments, when he proposed his Theory to their consideration: a Theory, calculated to vindicate our present happy Constitution on a principle of right, by adjusting the precise bounds of either Society; by shewing how they come to act in conjunction; and by explaining the nature of their union: and from thence, by natural and necessary consequence, inducing, on the one hand, an Established Religion, with all its rights and privileges, secured by a Test Law; and on the other, a full and free Toleration to all who dissented from the national worship.

"He first shewed the use of Religion to Society, from the experience and practice of all ages: He inquired from whence the use arose, and sound it to be from certain original desects in the very essence and plan of Civil Society. He went on to the nature of Religion; and shewed how, and for what causes, it constituted a Society: And then, from the natures of the two Societies, he collected, that the object of the Civil, is only the Body and its interests; and the object of the Religious, only the Soul. Hence he concluded, that both Societies are Sovereign, and Independent; because they arise not out of one another; and because, as they are concerned in contrary provinces, they can never meet to clash; the sameness of original, or the sameness of administration, being

" being the only causes which can bring one, of two distinct Societies, into natural subjection to the other.

"To apply Religion therefore to the service of Civil "Society, in the best manner it is capable of being ap-" plied, he shewed it was necessary that the two Societies " should Unite: For, each being sovereign and inde-"pendent, there was no other way of applying the fer-" vice of Religion in any folid or effectual manner. " no fuch union could arise but from free compact and And free convention is never likely to " convention. "happen, unless each Society has its mutual motives, and "mutual advantages. The Author therefore, from what "he had laid down of the natures of the two Societies, " explained what these motives and advantages were. "Whence, it appeared that all the rights, privileges, and " prerogatives of the two Societies, thus united, with the "Civil Magistrate at their head, were indeed those very "rights, privileges, and prerogatives, which we find " established and enjoyed under our present happy Con-"fitution in Church and State: The refult of this was "that an Established Church and a free Toleration " are made perfectly to agree by the medium of a TEST This Law therefore the Author in the last place " proceeded to vindicate, on the same general principles of " the law of Nature and Nations.

" This

"This is a true, though fhort analysis of the Alliance between Church and State \*."

This work made a great impression on the best judges. One + of them, to whom he had sent a present of his book, expresses himself thus ——

"I had formerly been very agreeably entertained with fome emendations of your's on Shakespeare, and was extremely pleased to find this work was by the same hand. Good learning, great acuteness, an ingenious working head, and depth of thought, will always please in an author, though we are not entirely in the same ways of thinking."—And, in the close of it, he adds—"You have not, Sir, only my thanks for what you have done, but my sincere wishes, that what was intended for the fervice of the publick may prove also to be for your own, to which my endeavours, in any proper way, shall not be wanting."

This was candid and generous, confidering that the eminent person was not altogether in the author's sentiments on the subject of his book. But he was struck with his great abilities, and became from this moment his sincere friend.

The truth is, no fort of men, either within or without the Church, was prepared, at that time, for

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. VI. p. 781-3.

an indifferent reception of this new theory, which respected none of their prejudices. It was neither calculated to please the High-Church Divines, nor the Low; and the Layity had taken their fide with the one or the other of those parties.

However, though few at that time were convinced, all were struck by this essay of an original writer, and could not dissemble their admiration of the ability, which appeared in the construction of it. There was indeed a reach of thought in this system of Church-policy, which would prevent its making its way all at once. It required time and attention, even in the most capable of its readers, to apprehend the force of the argumentation; and a more than common share of candour to adopt the conclusion, when they did. The author had therefore reason to be satisfied with the reception of his theory, fuch as it was: and having thoroughly perfuaded himself of its truth, as well as importance, he continued to enlarge and improve it in feveral subsequent editions; and in the last, by the opportunity, which some elaborate attempts of his adversaries to overturn it, had afforded him, he exerted his whole strength upon it, and has left it in a condition to brave the utmost efforts of future criticism \*.

Some

<sup>\*</sup> An eminent writer has delivered his opinion of it in these terms-"Bishop Warburton, in his Alliance between Church and State, hath shewn "the general good policy of an Establishment, and the necessity of A TEST " for

Some indeed, have taken offence at the idea of an Alliance; but without cause: for the meaning is this, That our Church-Establishment is such as in equity it must have been, had the terms of it been settled by mutual agreement between the two parties. Which, in other words, is only saying, That those terms are just and reasonable.

The idea of an Alliance was conceived, in preference to any other mode of conducting the argument, because the theory of civil government had been formed on the like notion of a contract between Prince and People. This way of reasoning, therefore, without being less conclusive, had the advantage of being more popular, than any other, and as such was very properly adopted by our author.

Notwithstanding this management, the Alliance, as I obferved, was not generally understood. But he did not wait for the reward of public favour to encourage him in the resolution he had taken of dedicating his great talents to the service of religion. In the close of this first edition of The Alliance, he announced his next and greatest work, The Divine Legation of Moses; which he had now planned, and in part composed. For, when such a writer

<sup>&</sup>quot;for its fecurity, upon principles which Republicans themselves cannot easily deny.—His work is one of the finest specimens, that are to be found perhaps in any language, of scientific reasoning applied to a political fubject." Dr. Horsley's Review of the Case of the Protestant Dissenters. Pref. London, 1787.

as this, has by a long course of study laid in the proper materials for invention to operate upon, and has, by one vigorous essay, assured himself of his own strength, his progress to perfection is rapid, and almost instantaneous; like the pace of Homer's Gods, whose sirst step reaches to Olympus, and the second, to the ends of the earth.

It had been pretended by those who called themselves Deits, and, in the modesty of free-thinking which then prevailed, had, or affected to have, a respect for the natural doctrine of a future state, That the omission of this doctrine in the Mosaic law was a clear decisive proof of its imposture, as no institute of religion, coming from God, could be without that principle.

The author of the Allance faw the omission in another light; and was so far from admitting the Deist's conclusion, that he thought himself able to prove, in the clearest manner, and with the evidence of what is called Moral demonstration, the divinity of the Mosaic Law from that very circumstance.

Such then was the subject and scope of Mr. Warburton's capital work, The Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated on the principles of a religious Deist. But in the conduct of this new and paradoxical argument, so many prejudices and objections, both of believers and unbelievers, were to be removed; and so many collateral lights to be let in upon it; that the discourse extended itself far and wide,

D 2 and

and took in all that was most curious in Gentile, Jewish, and Christian antiquity.

In the beginning of the year 1738, the first volume of this work appeared, and immediately drew all eyes upon Some were too weak, and fome, too much dimmed or distorted by prejudices, to take a full and distinct view No wonder then if fuch readers mifof its contents. conceived of the writer's purpose, and misrepresented it. Yet few were so blind, as not to admire the execution. "I hear nobody speak of your book," says the Bishop of Chichester, "who do not express themselves highly en-"tertained with it; though they think the principal point "which remains to be proved, a paradox "." And what the Bishop himself thought of it, before publication, when the sheets were sent to him from the press, he tells the author in these words—" I can say, without any compli-"ment, that your papers have given me high delight. "So many beautiful thoughts, fuch ingenious illustrations " of them, fuch a clear connection, fuch a deduction of "notions, and fo much good learning upon fo useful a " fubject, all expressed in proper and fine language, cannot "but give an intelligent reader the greatest satisfaction +."

And to much the same purpose another learned friend, the Bishop of Salisbury !—" Last night I received some

<sup>\*</sup> MS Letters, Feb. 21, 1737-8. + Oct. 18, 1737.

<sup>‡</sup> Dr. Sherlock.

"fleets of your book, and ran them over with great pleasure, though not with the attention, which the subject and your way of treating it demand \*." And in another letter, when he had taken time to consider the contents of this volume—"The learning and ability of the author of the D. L. are not called in question; and the first part has raised a great desire and expectation of the fecond †."

I quote these passages so particularly, because the Bishops, Hare and Sherlock, were, without doubt, among the ablest of his judges, and because their temper was far enough from inclining towards an officious and lavish civility to their friends.

After authorities of so much weight, I should not think it worth while to take notice of what was objected to him by ordinary writers, but that he thought sit to answer one ‡ of them, in a style so soft and elegant, that they who have a taste for the gentler polemics will read it with great pleasure.

The real ground of the abuse cast upon him, though other causes were pretended, was the handsome manner in which he had spoken of Dr. Middleton, in his preface to the sirst volume. This ingenious man (of whom more will be said, as we go along) had written some things,

which

<sup>\*</sup> MS Letters, Oct. 18, 1737. 

† March 2, 1737.8.

<sup>‡</sup> Dr. Webster. See Vol. VI. p. 3.

which gave occasion to suspect him of a leaning towards insidelity. Mr. Warburton was personally acquainted with him, and had a real esteem for him. He wished therefore, if possible, to draw his friend off from that bias, which his passions, rather than his judgement, he conceived, had impressed upon him, by putting the fairest constructions on his writings, and by affecting to understand them in the most favourable sense. But, instead of clearing his friend, by this means, from the guilt of heterodoxy, the effect was to involve himself in the suspicion of it: And it was thought proper that he should disclaim and repel so groundless an imputation. This it was not difficult for him to do, so far as respected his own character; but that of his friend required managing, and he would not justify himself at his expence.

In these delicate circumstances, he acquitted himself with dexterity, yet with perfect good faith, and to the singular satisfaction of his friends. "I received yesterday," says Bishop Hare, "your Vindication, which I read twice over "with great satisfaction—The part that relates to Dr. Mid-"dleton, we think extremely well done. It was the only difficult part, and it cannot but please every candid rea-"der to see you do justice to yourself, and yet not do it at his expence, nor say a word, that either he or his friends can be offended at, or that is in the least giving up a "man,"

"man, with whom you live in friendship. Here is cou"rage and integrity very agreeably joined \*."

The Bishop here gives a very just account of the Vindication, and indeed of Mr. Warburton's general conduct towards Dr. Middleton; as appears from the whole of his intercourse with him, which began in 1736, and was carried on, by a frequent exchange of friendly and affectionate letters from that time to 1741, when it seems to have ceased, or to have been interrupted at least, for reasons which will be mentioned hereafter.

In the whole course of these letters, which I have in my hands, every fort of polite infinuation is employed to soften and remove his prejudices against revealed religion; by joining with him, sometimes, in his graver complaints of bigoted divines, and, sometimes, in his ridicule of their pretended orthodoxy; but in taking for granted, every where, his respect for revelation, and his real belief of it, and in seeming to think that, if other opinions were entertained of him, they had proceeded from an ignorance of his true character.

But the friendliness of his views will best appear from his own words.

He had taken occasion to acquaint Dr. Middleton with the manner in which he meant to address the Free-thinkers, in his dedication to them, presixed to the first volume of the D. L. and with his purpose of making respectful mention of him in it. To this information Dr. Middleton replies, Sept. 22, 1737, "I am pleased with the manner of your address to the Free-thinkers, and obliged to you for your friendly intentions with regard to myself; and though I should be as proud to have the testimony of your judgement and good opinion, as of any man, yet I would have you consider, how far such a declaration of it may expose you to a share of that envy, which has lain, and still lies very heavy upon me."

This was handsome on his part, but was not likely to divert his friend from the measures he had taken. Accordingly in a letter, dated Dec. 23, 1737, after telling him that his book was coming out, and that he had ordered a copy of it to be sent him, he proceeds thus, with a manifest allusion, in the concluding sentence, to Dr. Middleton's letter—"I have your pardon to ask for the liberty I have taken of designing you, by your character, in one place of the body of the book, as well as in the dedication to the Free-thinkers. For I would fain contribute to abate an unjust prejudice, that might lie in the way of those honours which wait for you, and are for much your due. And I shall reckon it for nothing, in for bonest an attempt, to run the risk of sharing that prejudice with you."

And again, writing to him March 18, 1737-8, on the fubject of his answer to the author of the Weekly Miscellany, he says, "I am to thank him for the agreeable necessity of vindicating you (by a quotation in one of the defences that pass for yours) from his false accu- fation of denying the inspiration of scripture; and from his imagination (which is the ground of this clamour) that you defend Revelation, not as true, but only use- ful; and that, as to other points, you and I can differ without breach of common humanity, friendship, and Christian charity."

I have put these things together, because I would not interrupt the recital of what concerns the first appearance of those two capital works, The Alliance, and Divine Legation (so closely connected with each other that the former, in the original design, was but a chapter of the latter); the reception they met with from the publick; and the occasion they gave him of justifying an obnoxious friend, as well as explaining his own sentiments.

I must now go back a little to mention a circumstance in his life, which does the parties concerned too much honour to be omitted by me, and which happened in the latter end of the year 1737. The Alliance had now made the author much talked of at Court; and the Bishop of Chichester, on whom that work had impressed, as we have seen, the highest ideas of his merit, was willing to

take

take that favourable opportunity of introducing him to the Queen. Her Majesty, it is well known, took a pleafure in the discourse of men of learning and genius; and chancing one day to ask the Bishop, if he could recommend a person of that description to be about her, and to entertain her, sometimes, with his conversation, the Bishop said, he could, and mentioned the author of The Alliance between Church and State. The recommendation was graciously received, and the matter put in so good a train, that the Bishop expected every day the conclusion of it, when the Queen was seized with a sudden illness, which put an end to her life the 20th of November, 1737.

I find this transaction alluded to in a letter from the Bishop, dated Nov. 11, that is, nine days before that unhappy event. His lordship thanks Mr. Warburton for some sheets of the first volume of the Legation, which were just then sent in from the press, and, after making some remarks upon them, takes notice of a stroke of pleasantry, which, it seems, had escaped him, on Mr. Wollaston's samous book on The Religion of Nature, and which he advises him to strike out, as it would give great offence to the admirers of that book. I have besides, continues his Lordship, a particular reason for advising you to alter that passage, which you shall know at a proper time.

And, afterwards, in the same letter—I would advise, not only the cancelling that leaf, but the doing it IMMEDIATELY,

that it may not get into many bands. When I see you, I am persuaded, you will allow this is right advice from a FRIEND.

The fecret was, that he was then endeavouring to ferve his friend with the Queen, and was apprehensive that the freedom he had taken with that work, which She much admired, might hurt him in her Majesty's opinion, and defeat his design.

This disappointment, when he came to know it, did not abate his ardour in prosecuting his studies at Brand-Broughton. After publishing the Vindication, before mentioned, early in the year 1738, he applied himself with great industry to compose the second volume of his work, notwithstanding the clamours, which had been raised, and now grew louder, against the first. "I go steadily on," says he in a letter to Dr. Middleton, Nov. 12, 1738, amidst much ill treatment. If you ask, what it is that fupports me, I will tell you, my excellent friend: It is the love of truth, and a clear conviction of the reality of the Jewish and Christian Revelations."

Animated with these principles, he went on with his great design, and seems to have spent the two or three succeeding years upon it. Only, in 1739, he drew up and published a short desence of Mr. Pope's Essay on Man, against Mr. de Crousaz, who had written a book to shew that it was constructed on the principles of Spinosa, and contained a dangerous system of irreligion. But though

this

this was a flight thing, and took up little of his time, yet as it respected so eminent a person, and had great consequences with regard to himself, it will be proper to enlarge upon it.

It has been objected to Mr. Warburton, that, in his earlier days, he had himself entertained a prejudice against Mr. Pope, and had even expressed it in very strong terms. The offence taken had probably been occasioned by a fevere reflexion, in one of his fatires, on Mr. Warburton's friend and patron, Sir Robert Sutton. And, in that case, it is likely that he might express himself of the poet, with too much warmth. For I will not conceal or difguise the infirmity of my friend. When his moral feelings were touched, he was apt to be transported into some intemperance of expression, and was not always guarded, or even just, in his censures or commendations. But a mind, naturally great, does not long retain this fervour, and, when cooled by reflection, is in haste to make amends for its former excesses. It is impossible, indeed, that, under any provocation, he should be blind to so much merit, as our great poet possessed; and what he saw of this fort in any man, he was not backward to declare to others. In his Vindication of himself, last year, he had shewn how much he admired Mr. Pope, by quoting a fine passage from him, and applying it to himself in a way, that shewed an esteem of his morals, as well as poetry. Since

Since that time, he had fuffered so much abuse himself from angry zealots, and selt so strongly, in his own case, what it was for a well-meaning man to have his religious sentiments misrepresented, that this attack of M. de Crousaz would naturally find him in a disposition to resent it.

Add to all this, that he faw with concern the ill use which some were ready to make of the supposed fatalism of Mr. Pope, and how hurtful it was to religion to have it imagined, that so great a genius was ill-inclined towards it.

These reasons, working together, seem to have determined him to take the part of the injured poet; as indeed he explains the matter himself in a letter of July 16, 1739, to Dr. Middleton:—"A certain great man is very angry with me for speaking of you in the manner I did. I make no question but another fort of those they call great men will hold themselves outraged by me in my vindication of Mr. Pope against M. de Crousaz in some letters which are going to be collected together and published. But I cannot forbear shewing my esteem of merit, and my contempt of their calumniators, or thinking that it is of use to Religion to prove so noble a genius is a friend to it."

These letters were much read, and gave a new lustre to Mr. Warburton's reputation. They shewed the elegance of his taste in polite literature, as well as his penetration into moral subjects. Mr. Pope was supremely struck with them,

them \*, and might now exult, as his predecessor Boileau had done, when he cried out, in the face of his enemies—

"Arnauld, le grand Arnauld, fait mon apologie."

From this time there was an intimate acquaintance formed between the poet and his commentator. The effects of this union will be taken notice of prefently. I now only add, that it was strongly cemented by a mutual profession of esteem, and a constant interchange of letters.

Among these I find one which Mr. Warburton addressed to his friend, in vindication of Sir Robert Sutton; written, as appears, with the view of prevailing with him to strike that gentleman's name out of his satires. As it sets the author in an amiable light, and seems to confirm my conjecture, that his former distatisfaction with Mr. Pope had arisen from this circumstance, I shall give it in the Appendix [A].

Towards the end of this year [1739] he published a new and improved edition of the first volume of the D.L., and sent it to his friend Bishop Hare; who, in a kind letter of Dec. 1, 1739, returns his thanks for it, and adds—"I hope not only posterity, but the present age, "will do justice to so much merit, and do affure you, it shall not be my fault if it do not." Which I mention to shew that the envy which was then rising very fast

<sup>\*</sup> See his Letter in his Works, April 11, 1739.

against the author of the D. L. and which was supposed to have the countenance of some considerable Churchmen, had made no alteration in the sentiments of that great prelate, or lessened his esteem of him. Indeed on all occasions he expressed his regard for Mr. Warburton in the friendliest manner, of which the following instance must not be omitted.

Sir Thomas Hanmer, who was a man of business, and had been Speaker of the House of Commons in Queen Anne's time, grew ambitious, in the latter part of his life, to be taken notice of as a critick on Shakespeare. He had seen some notes on his favourite poet by Mr. Warburton in Mr. Theobald's edition: And as he was now preparing one of his own, which he afterwards printed at the Clarendon press, he very justly conceived that the affishance of Mr. Theobald's co-adjutor might be of service to him in the execution of that project.

With this view he got himself introduced to Mr. Warburton by the Bishop of Salisbury, Dr. Sherlock, and managed so well as to draw from his new acquaintance a large collection of notes and emendations, which were, in considence, communicated to him in a series of private letters.

What followed upon this, and what use he made of those friendly communications, I need not repeat, as the account

account is given by Mr. Warburton himself in the lively preface to his and Mr. Pope's edition of Shakespeare, of which something more will be said in its place. It is enough to say here, that he very reasonably resented this usage, and complained of it to his two friends, the Bishops of Salisbury and Chichester. The sormer expresses his concern at this ill-treatment, and the more so, he says, as be bad in some measure been the occasion of it; i. e. by bringing Mr. Warburton and Sir Thomas Hanmer together.

The latter tells him, in a letter of May 9, 1739—"Sir "Thomas Hanmer's proceeding with respect to Shakespeare "is very extraordinary.—I think you do very well to get "your own papers out of his hands: 'tis pity, they have been so long in them, since 'tis probable he has squeezed what he could out of them; which is most ungenerous treatment." He concludes with saying—"I hope you will find leisure to give the world a Shakespeare, your- felf, which the sooner 'tis made known the better."

And thus ended this trifling affair, which I should scarcely have mentioned but to do justice to the friendly temper of Bishop Hare, who interested himself so kindly in all his concerns; and to shew that Mr. Warburton's conduct was not directed by caprice or petulance, but was that of a man of sense and honour, and as such was approved by his most judicious friends.

Mr. Warburton was so taken up with his studies, and found so much delight in them, that he rarely stirred from home; which he would often say there was no good reason for doing, except necessary business, and the satisfaction of seeing a friend. What the world calls amusement from a change of the scene, passed for nothing with him, who was too well employed to be tired of his situation, or to have a thought of running away from himsels; which, after all, they, who are incessantly making the experiment, find impossible to be done. Yet he sometimes found himself obliged to go to London; as he did in the spring of the year 1740; and he took that opportunity of making his first visit to Mr. Pope, of which he immediately gave Dr. Middleton the following account.

"I passed about a week at Twickenham in the most agreeable manner. Mr. Pope is as good a companion, as a poet; and what is more, appears to be as good a man."

The last was indeed the consideration, that so much indeared Mr. Pope to him. He found him an honest and well-principled man; zealous to promote the interests of virtue, and impressed with an awful sense of religion, natural and revealed. In short, he found an image of himself in his new acquaintance: no wonder then, their

<sup>\*</sup> May 6, 1740.

esteem and affection grew so fast as to give umbrage, in no long time, to a certain nobleman, who had taken to himself the honour of being the guide and philosopher of Mr. Pope.

The acquisition of this new friend came very seasonably to support Mr. Warburton under the loss of another, the excellent Bishop Hare, who died after a short illness the 6th of April this year.

How he felt that loss, the publick has been informed by himself in the preface to the second volume of the D. L., and with a flow of sentiment and expression, which only the truest friendship, operating on a mind like his, could inspire. But we are better pleased to hear him express his sense of it in a private letter to a friend. Speaking of the Bishop's death to Dr. Middleton, in the letter above mentioned of May 6, 1740, he says—" He has not left his sellow behind him for the love and encourage- ment of learning. I have had a great loss in his death. He honoured me with his esteem and friendship. This I esteemed a great obligation. I never sought to increase it by any other dependance upon him; and by the terms on which we kept up a correspondence, he did me the justice to believe, I expected no other."

This freedom of correspondence does honour to both parties; and was observed, with address, in this letter to Dr. Middleton, who had conceived Bishop Hare to have

taken a prejudice against himself, for his liberty in professing some sentiments, not conformable to his Lordship's. He therefore infinuates there was no ground for such a suspicion, for that he himself, so much and so long in the Bishop's savour, had lived with him on the same free terms. He knew very well, that nothing could recommend his patron or himself to his friend's good opinion more, than such liberality on the one part, and so manly a conduct on the other.

But the truth is, though Mr. Warburton very properly fought not to increase his obligation to Bishop Hare, he would certainly have received the highest, had it been in the Bishop's power; which very probably ended with the Queen's death.

In May, 1741, was published the second volume of the D. L. which completed the argument, although not the entire plan of that work. A work! in all views, of the most transcendant merit, whether we consider the invention, or the execution.

A plain simple argument, yet perfectly new, proving the divinity of the Mosaic Law, and laying a sure soundation for the support of Christianity, is there drawn out to a great length by a chain of reasoning, so elegantly connected, that the reader is carried along it with ease and pleasure; while the matter presented to him is so striking for its own importance, so embellished by a lively sancy,

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and

n d illustrated, from all quarters, by exquisite learning and the most ingenious disquisition, that, in the whole compass of modern or antient theology, there is nothing equal or similar to this extraordinary performance.

Such is the general idea of the Divine Legation of Moses. But for a more distinct conception of its frame; to see at once

-" the bearings and the ties,

"The strong connections, just dependencies;"
the reader is referred to the recapitulation at the end of the
VIth book \*, where the author himself has drawn up a
brief comprehensive view of his whole scheme, with great
spirit.

This year, but something earlier, came out Dr. Middleton's famous History of the Life of Cicero; which was received by the publick, as it deserved to be, with great applause. Mr. Warburton took the first occasion to compliment his friend upon it; And, as in the concluding part of that work Dr. Middleton had controverted the account given of Cicero's philosophical opinions in the first volume of the D. L. he takes notice, that be bad a more particular pleasure in the last section, as he was more particularly interested in it; and then proceeds to moralize in the solution of us be "esteemed orthodox writers. But this we shall do, we

"fhall give an example to the world, which orthodox writers rarely do, and perhaps of more use to mankind, than most of the refined subjects they engage in, that we can differ in many important points, and publicly avow our difference, without the least interruption of the declared friendship and esteem, we bear to each other. And the Life of Tully, and the D. L., will be a rule, which sew have set us and perhaps sew will solw, how men, who esteem and love each other, should comport themselves when they differ in opinion. So that whichever is right or wrong in opinion, the honest part of the world will judge both of us to be right in sentiment \*."

To whom Dr. Middleton replies, with great complacency, in the same strain—" As to the circumstance, from which you draw so just and useful a lesson, of our discreting from each other in some particular opinions, as I was always persuaded that it could not have any other effect upon you, so I have the comfort to assure you, that I never selt the least impression from it disadvantate geous to our friendship. It is the necessary consequence of that privilege of our nature on which all men of sense set the highest value, the liberty of judging for our selves; yet since it would be a great satisfaction to me

"in all cases to find my judgement confirmed by yours, fo, when you are at full leisure, I should be glad to know the particular reasons which force you to differ from me on the subject of Cicero's opinions; to which alone our difference in the present case is to be referred, that as far as is possible we may come still nearer to each other \*."

Thus these two ingenious men; and the same spirit breathes through the rest of their letters: So that their whole temper feems to have refolved itself into a principle of general candour. Yet, within a month or two, a fresh difference of opinion taking place (though on a subject of no more importance than the other about Cicero, respecting only the origin of popish ceremonies) and neither fide giving way, our two candid friends cooled infenfibly towards each other, and feem, thenceforward, to have discontinued their correspondence; for I find no letters, that passed between them, of a later date, than those of this year which touch upon that difference. memorable instance of our common weakness! which shews how little stress is to be laid on those professions of candour, with which our letters and conversations overflow; and how impossible it is for any lasting friendship to sublist between men of opposite principles and persua-

<sup>\*</sup> Cambridge, April 5, 1741. I suppose a misdate for May 5th, or Mr. Warburton's letter is misdated.

fions, however their feelings may for a time be dissembled, or disguised even to themselves, by a shew of good breeding.

For a contrary reason, the conformity of their sentiments, the friendship between Mr. Warburton and Mr. Pope became every day closer and more confidential. the beginning of this fummer, when the business that had called him to London, on the publication of his book, was over, he went down again to Twickenham, and passed some weeks with Mr. Pope there, and in a countryramble, which led them at last to Oxford. The univerfity was naturally pleafed at the arrival of two fuch strangers, and feemed defirous of inrolling their names among their graduates. The degree of Doctor of Divinity was intended for the Divine, and that of Doctor of Law for the Poet, as a testimony of their great respect for each. But intrigue and envy defeated this scheme; and the univerfity loft the honour of decorating, at the same time, the two greatest geniusses of the age, by the fault of one or two of its members \*. Mr. Pope retired with some indignation to Twickenham, but confoled himself and his friend with this farcastic reflexion—"We shall take our "degree together in Fame, whatever we do at the uni-" verfity +."

<sup>\*</sup> Pope's Works, Vol. IX. Lond. 1753. Letter CVII. - Sept. 20, 1741.

The time they spent together this summer gave occasion to some interesting conversations. Mr. Warburton suggested many alterations and improvements of Mr. Pope's moral writings, and particularly advised him to strike out every thing in them that might be suspected of having the least glance towards fate or naturalism, which he consented to, we are told, with extreme pleasure \*. It was, also, at this time that he concerted with him the plan of the IVth book of the Dunciad †.

Mr. Pope lost no time in carrying it into execution. In November following he presses his friend to meet him at Prior-Park, on the invitation of Mr. Allen, with whom he then was, and tells him it was there that he should find most leisure to profit by the advice he had given him "to resume the studies, which he had almost laid aside by perpetual avocations and dissipations."

Here accordingly they met: a great part of the new poem was read and highly approved: the rest was finished in the course of the year 1742, and a project formed for making Mr. Warburton the Editor of the IV books complete; which was executed very early in 1743; and so much to the author's satisfaction, that he afterwards engaged him to sustain the like office with regard to the rest of his Works:

<sup>\*</sup> Pref. to his Works.

<sup>+</sup> Pope's Works, Vol. IX. Letter CX. note.

Letters 112, 113, 114, 115.

I shall find a fitter place, in the course of these reflexions, to speak my own sentiments of the edition of Mr. Pope's works. All I have now to add on this interesting part of Mr. Warburton's life, is, that the most unreserved considence continued between the two friends till Mr. Pope's death in May, 1744: and with what warmth of affection on both sides, appears from the last will and testament of the latter, and from the zeal of the former to fulfill his intention and to do all possible honour to his memory.

It must, indeed, be regretted that this memorable friendship commenced so late, and ended so soon. We might otherwise have seen the most valuable fruits of it. Their hearts and heads were exactly attuned to each other; and, had the life and health of Mr. Pope permitted, this harmonious agreement in the powers and purposes of two such men could not have failed to produce many a noble design in favour of virtue and religion.

The death of our great poet, was an event that could not fail of putting the spirits of the ingenious in motion, and of exciting an emulation, among the lovers of polite literature, to adorn his memory and virtues. It accordingly produced Mr. Brown's Essay on Satire, which was addressed to Mr. Warburton, and so far approved by him, as to be prefixed to his edition of Mr. Pope's works. It also brought on the dawn of Mr. Mason's genius, in The

Monody, entitled Museus; which gave so sure a presage of his future eminence in poetry, and so advantageous a picture of his mind, that Mr. Warburton, on the sight of it,

"With open arms received one poet more."

Soon after Mr. Pope's death, Mr. Warburton received a letter from a learned and ingenious lady, Mrs. Cockburne, lamenting that event, and making some enquiry after Mr. Pope's works; but the real purpose of the letter-writer was to draw Mr. Warburton into an explanation of his system concerning *Moral Obligation*, as delivered in the first volume of the D. L., it being different from one espoused by herself, which was that of Dr. Samuel Clarke.

His answer to this Lady is written with great civility and politeness, and was so well received, that, when, a year or two afterwards, she drew up her consutation of Dr. Rutherforth's Essay on Virtue, she sent the manuscript to Mr. Warburton; who was extremely pleased with it, and wrote a short presace in recommendation of that work. His Letter may be seen in the Appendix [B].

But to return to what I was faying of Mr. Pope's friendship for Mr. Warburton.

Next to the enjoyment itself of such a friendship, the chief benefit Mr. Warburton derived from it, was the being introduced by his means to his principal friends; particularly Mr. Murray, and Mr. Allen; two of the greatest

greatest and best men of the age. As I had myself the honour of being well acquainted with these excellent perfons, and very much obliged to them, I may the rather be allowed to indulge myself in the recollection of their virtues.

Mr. Murray, afterwards Earl of Mansfield and Lord Chief Justice of England, was so extraordinary a person, and made so great a figure in the world, that his name must go down to posterity, with distinguished honour, in the public records of the nation. For his shining talents displayed themselves in every department of the state, as well as in the supreme Court of Justice, his peculiar province; which he silled with a lustre of reputation, not equalled perhaps, certainly not exceeded, by that of any of his predecessors.

Of his conduct in the House of Lords, I can speak with the more considence, because I speak from my own observation. Too good to be the leader, and too able to be the dupe, of any party, he was believed to speak his own sense of public measures; and the authority of his judgement was so high that, in regular times, the House was usually determined by it. He was no forward, or frequent speaker; but reserved himself, as was sit, for occasions worthy of him. In debate, he was eloquent as well as wise; or rather, he became eloquent by his wisdom. His countenance and tone of voice imprinted

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the ideas of penetration, probity, and candour; but what fecured your attention and affent to all he faid, was his constant good sense, flowing in apt terms and the clearest method. He affected no sallies of the imagination, or bursts of passion; much less would be condescend to perfonal abuse or petulant altercation. All was clear, candid reason, letting itself so easily into the minds of his hearers as to carry information and conviction with it. In a word, his public senatorial character resembled very much that of Messala, of whom Cicero says, addressing himself to Brutus—

"Do not imagine, Brutus, that, for worth, honour, and a warm love of his country, any one is comparable to Messala: So that his eloquence, in which he won-derfully excells, is almost eclipsed by those virtues. And even in his display of that faculty, his superior good fense shews itself most: with so much care and skill hath he formed himself to the truest manner of speaking! His powers of genius and invention are confessed edly of the first size; yet he almost owes less to them, than to the diligent and studious cultivation of his judgement than to the diligent and studious cultivation of his judgement."

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Cave putes probitate, constantià, curà, studio reipublicæ, quid"quara illi simile esse; ut eloquentia, quà mirabiliter excellit, vix in eo
"locum ad laudandum habere videatur. Quanquam in hàc ipsa sapientia
"plus apparet: ita gravi judicio multaque arte se exercuit in verissimo
"genere dicendi. Tanta autem industria est, tantumque evigilat in stu"dio, ut non maxime ingenio, quod in eo summum est, gratia habenda
"videatur." Cic. ad Brutum, I. 15.

In the commerce of private life, he was easy, friendly, and agreeable, extremely sensible of merit in other men, and ready on all occasions to countenance and produce it. From his early youth, he had attracted the notice, and obtained the friendship and applause, of our great poet.

Mr. Allen was a man of plain good fense, and the most benevolent temper. He rose to great consideration by farming the cross-posts; which he put into the admirable order in which we now find them; very much to the public advantage, as well as his own. He was of that generous composition, that his mind enlarged with his fortune; and the wealth he so honourably acquired, he fpent in a splendid hospitality, and the most extensive charities. His house, in so public a scene as that of Bath, was open to all men of rank and worth, and especially to men of diftinguished parts and learning; whom he honoured and encouraged; and whose respective merits he was enabled to appreciate, by a natural differnment and fuperior good fense, rather than any acquired use and knowledge of letters. His domestic virtues were above all praise. With these qualities he drew to himself an universal respect; and possessed, in a high degree, the esteem of Mr. Pope, who, in one of his moral essays, has done justice to his modest and amiable character.

To these two incomparable persons Mr. Pope was especially anxious to introduce his friend; and it was not

long before he experienced the most substantial benefits from this recommendation.

In the mean time, his attention was turned towards that numerous host of answerers, which the D. L. of Moses had brought down upon him. The extensive argument, and miscellaneous nature of that work, had led him to declare his sentiments on a multitude of questions, on which he thought differently from other writers, and of course to cenfure or confute their opinions. Whole bodies of men, as well as individuals of the highest reputation, were attacked by him; and his manner was to speak his sense of all with freedom and force. So that most writers, and even readers, had fome ground of complaint against him. Not only the free-thinkers and unbelievers, against whom . the tenour of his book was directed, but the heterodox of every denomination were treated without much ceremony; and of the orthodox themselves some tenet or other, which till then they had held facred, was discussed and reprobated by him. Straggling herefies, or embodied systems, made no difference with him; as they came in his way, no quarter was given to either: "his end and manner of "writing," as Dr. Middleton truly observed, "being to pur-" fue truth, wherever he found it, and, from the midst " of smoke and darkness, to spread light and day around " him \*."

<sup>\*</sup> Letter VII. in Dr. Middleton's Works, vol. II.

Such a writer (independently of the envy, which ever attends superior genius) must needs have innumerable enemies. And as all could not receive, nor the greater part deserve, his notice, he determined to select a sew of the more respectable, out of the gross body of assailants, and to quit his hands of them at once, in a general comprehensive answer. This was done by Remarks on several occasional Reservious, in two parts; the sormer published in 1744, and the second (which he styles the last) in 1745; and both, executed in such a manner as was not likely to invite any fresh attacks upon him.

Yet the rage of his answerers was not presently subdued. Writing to a confidential friend from Prior-Park the year following [July 15, 1746] he tells him-" I have a deluge of writers against me. But two great men have made me promise to answer none of them. They faid-'You imagine the world takes as much notice of your answerers, as you yourself do. You are mistaken. The names of none of them were ever heard of in good company. And the world wonders you should so misemploy your time.' To this I faid, "It was true. But that there 'was another body to which some regard should be had, the inferior Clergy." They faid, if fuch writers misled them, it was in vain for me to think of them. And indeed I begin to think Aristotle mistaken when he defined man to be a rational animal. Not but I know the fource

fource of all this opposition is rather to be attributed to a bad heart, than a bad head. And you would be surprized at the instances of envy I could give you. Had I the complaisance to die to-morrow, it would all be over, before the end of the week. I am in this condition of a dead man, already, with regard to the Indies, there being at this immense distance no room for envy, as you will see by the following extract of a letter I received from one of the governors of Virginia:"

"I never had so much profit from any book, except the Bible, as from your's. The flood of insidelity has reached us. The blessing of God upon your excellent pen will, I hope, preserve us from the evil instuence. Pennsylvania seems to be over-run with Deism. The Quakers are generally insected, and it being their constitution to have no established religion, their too-universal toleration receives all without distinction. And they who worship God, and they who do not, are in the same esteem.

"Your first and second volumes of the Divine Legation came over to their public library. I recommended it frongly. It soon became the subject of all conversation. Never were such struggles about any book, who should first read it. The reasonable were convinced; the obstinate were assonished. A friend of mine of learning and station there spoke of it with the

warmest praise: he said, it had made him ten times more a Christian, than he had ever been."—

These reflexions were consolatory to him, and made him bear with more temper the petulance of his adversaries; whom he seems to have neglected, till one of high same and consident pretensions forced him again into the field of controversy. But this was not till some years afterwards.——I now go on with my narrative from 1745.

Mr. Pope had very early introduced his friend to the notice of Lord Chestersield; who going this year Lord Lieutenant to Ireland, was desirous of taking Mr. Warburton with him, as his first Chaplain. He had his reasons for declining this offer; but he had a proper sense of the civility, and made his public acknowledgements for it in a dedication of the Alliance, reprinted with many corrections and improvements in 1748. The style of compliment in this piece will perhaps be censured as too high. But the truth is, that specious nobleman had the fortune to be better thought of, in his life-time, than he has been since. The general opinion therefore (which came confirmed to him by Mr. Pope) very naturally inflamed the expression of his gratitude, in that panegyrical epistle.

After an acquaintance of some years, Mr. Allen had, now, seen so much of his friend, that he wished to unite him still more closely to himself by an alliance of marriage with an accomplished Lady of his own family \*.

<sup>\*</sup> Miss Gertrude Tucker, Mr. Allen's favourite niece.

This event took place in the beginning of the year 1746; and foon after, the preachership of Lincoln's-Inn happening to become vacant, Mr. Murray, then Solicitor General, easily prevailed with the learned Bench to invite so eminent a person, as Mr. Warburton, to accept that office.

## II.

From the time of his marriage, Mr. Warburton resided chiefly at Prior Park. In so agreeable, or, rather, splendid a retreat, he enjoyed health, affluence, and leifure; the best company, when he chose to partake of it; and every other accommodation, which could be acceptable to a man of letters. His ambition was, also, gratified with the highest personal reputation; and, in due time, he fucceeded to the chief honours of his profession, he could not but be fensible of. Yet, I have heard him fay, that the most delicious season of his life was that which he had spent at Newark and Brand-Broughton. So delightful are the fpringing hopes of youth! and fo enchanting the scenes which open to a great genius, when he comes first to know himself, and to make trial of his. powers! The impression, these left upon him, is very agreeably described in a letter to Mr. C. Yorke, so late as the year 1758. Mr. Yorke had acquainted him with an excursion he had been making into Nottinghamshire. In his answer from P. P. Oct. 2, 1758, he says—"I am " glad

"glad to understand-you have amused yourself agreeably with a ramble into Nottinghamshire. It would have been the greatest pleasure to have chopped upon you at Newark: And I would have done so, on the least intimation. I could have led you through delicious walks, and picked off, for your amusement in our rambles, a thousand notions which I hung upon every thorn, as I passed, thirty years ago."

But to return from this reflexion.

The Preachership of Lincoln's-Inn had been offered him in so handsome a manner, that it could not be refused. Otherwise, the thing was not agreeable to him.

In a letter to Dr. Taylor \* from Prior-Park, May 22, 1746, he fays—" I think I told you in my last, that the "Society of Lincoln's-Inn had made me an unanimous "offer of the Preachership; which therefore I could not "refuse, though I would gladly have done it. For it will require five or six months attendance. And the advantage of the thing itself you may judge of, by this: "Mr. Allen would have me take a house, for which I pay as much rent, as the whole preachership is worth. This only to you. And don't think I speak with any affectation "when I tell you in your ear, that nothing can be more

"dif-

<sup>\*</sup> The physician—first of Newark, afterwards of London; very eminent in his profession, and from his early youth a friend of Mr. Warburton's.

"disagreeable to me, than this way of life. But I hope and determine that it shall not continue long. Don't you pity me? I shall be forced to write sermons: and God knows what will become of the D. L. But if I can do any good in this new station, I shall know how to bear the disagreements of it, and that's all. How capricious is the fate of mortals! Any other clergyman would think himself happy in such an honour as the Society has done me. I believe it is the first has been done to their Preacher. Yet I have no joy in it."

The truth is, the attendance on the term broke in upon his leifure; and, what was worse, the necessity he was under of composing sermons, with which he was but slenderly provided, diverted him from other things, for which he judged himself better qualified, and which he had more at heart.

The fruits of his industry in this new office there will be occasion to speak of, and to appreciate hereafter. For the present, it is true, his greater designs received some interruption, and particularly, as he intimates, that of the D. L.; although other reasons concurred to make him defer (indeed much too long) the prosecution of that noble work.

In the year 1747 appeared his edition of Shakespeare's works, which he had undertaken at the instance of Mr.

\* He means, by the unanimous offer of their preachership.

Pope.

Pope. "He was desirous"—the editor speaks in his own person—"I should give a new edition of this poet; and that his edition should be melted down into mine. In memory of our friendship, I have therefore made it our joint edition \*."

As the public envy was now at its height, from the rifing fortune, as well as fame, of the author, this edition awakened a spirit of criticism, which haunted him in every shape of dull ridicule, and solemn consutation. Happening to speak of this, in a letter written to him 1749 (for by that time I had the honour of being personally acquainted with him) he replies to me in the following lively manner—" I have, as you say, raised a spirit with—" out designing it. And, while I thought I was only con—" jecturing, it seems I was conjuring. So that I had no " sooner evoked the name of Shakespeare from the rotten " monument of his former editions, than a crew of strange " devils, and more grotesque than any he laughs at in " the old farces, came chattering, mewing, and grinning " round about me †."

The outcry against him was, indeed, pretty much what is here so pleasantly described. His illustrations of the poet's sense were frequently not taken; and his corrections of the faulty text, not allowed. And, to speak candidly,

<sup>\*</sup> Preface to Shakespeare.

<sup>+</sup> Prior Park, Sept. 28, 1749.

it could scarce be otherwise. For, though all pretend to be judges of poetry, sew have any idea of poeticalcriticism. And, as to what concerns the emendation of the text, the abler the critic, the more liable he is to some extravagance of conjecture (as we see in the case of Bentley himself); it being dullness, and not judgement, that best secures him from this sort of imputation \*.

For the rest, such is the felicity of his genius in restoring numberless passages to their integrity, and in explaining others which the author's sublime conceptions, or his licentious expression, had kept out of sight, that this fine edition of Shakespeare must ever be highly

\* The apology, which an eminent French writer makes for Joseph Scaliger, may ferve for all Commentators of his fize:

"Je ne sçay si on ne pourroit pas dire que Scaliger avoit trop d'esprit, 
tet trop de science, pour faire un bon commentaire; car à force d'avoir 
de l'esprit, il trouvoit dans les auteurs qu'il commentoit, plus de sinesse 
ret plus de genie, qu'ils n'en avoient essectivement; et sa prosonde litérature étoit cause qu'il voyoit mille rapports entre les pensées d'un auteur, 
et quelque point rare d'antiquité. De sorte qu'il s'imaginoit que son 
auteur avoit fait quelque allusion à ce point d'antiquité, et sur ce pied-li il 
corrigeoit un passage. Si on n'aime mieux s'imaginer que l'envie d'eclaireir 
un mistere d'érudition inconnu aux autres critiques, l'engageoit a supposer 
qu'il se trouvoit dans un tel ou tel passage. Quoiqu'il en soit, les commentaires qui viennent de lui, sont pleins de conjectures hardies, ingenieuses, et sort sçavantes, mais il n'est gueres apparent que les auteurs 
ayent songé à tout c qu'il leur sait dire. On s'éloigne de leur sens aussi 
bien quand on a beaucoup d'esprit, que quand on n'en a pas, &c."

Nouvelles de la Ripublique des Lettres, Juin, 1684.

valued by men of fense and taste; a spirit, congenial to that of the author, breathing throughout, and easily atoning, with such, for the little mistekes and inadvertencies, discoverable in it.

Mr. Warburton very properly neglected all attacks on his own critical fame. But of one, that was made foon after on the moral character of his friend, he took more notice. In 1749 an infignificant pamphlet, under the name of A Patriot King, was published by Lord Bolingbroke, or by his direction, with a preface to it, reflecting highly on Mr. Pope's honour. The provocation was fimply this. The manuscript of that trivial declamation had been intrusted to the care of Mr. Pope, with the charge (as it was pretended) that only a certain number of copies should be printed. Mr. Pope, in his excessive admiration of his Lordship (which was the chief foible of his character) took that opportunity, for fear so invaluable a treasure of patriot-eloquence should be lost to the publick, to exceed his commission, and to run off more copies, which were found, after his death, in the printer's warehouse; but with so little secresy that several of his friends, and in particular Mr. Allen (as he told me) was apprized of it at the time, and by Mr. Pope himfelf. This charge, however frivolous, was aggravated beyond meafure; and, notwithstanding the proofs Lord Bolingbroke had received of Mr. Pope's devotion to him, envenomed

with

with the utmost malignity. Mr. Warburton thought it became him to vindicate his deceased friend; and he did it so effectually, as not only to silence his accuser, but to cover him with confusion.

And here let me have leave to pause a little, while, in emulation of this generous conduct of my friend towards one great man, I endeavour to perform the same office towards another; the most amiable of his time; who has suffered, in the public opinion, by a charge of immoral meanness brought against him by Mr. Pope himself, and, as I am persuaded, without the least foundation. The person I mean is Mr. Addison, in whose good name, as in that of Mr. Pope, Virtue herself has an interest. He and Mr. Pope were, likewise, friends; and this relation between them brings the two cases into a still nearer resemblance with each other.

The charge, I allude to, is briefly this—Mr. Addison had uniformly \* advised and encouraged Mr. Pope's translation of the Iliad, from the year 1713, when the design of that work was first communicated to him. He had even been zealous to promote the subscription to it; and in May, 1716, when a considerable progress had been made in the translation, and some parts of it published, he speaks of it in the Freeholder, N° 40, in the following manner:

<sup>\*</sup> See Letters to and from Mr. Addison, in Mr. Pope's Works.

<sup>&</sup>quot;When

"When I consider myself as a British freeholder, I am
"in a particular manner pleased with the labours of those
"who have improved our language with the translation
"of old Latin and Greek authors; and by that means
"let us into the knowledge of what passed in the famous
governments of Greece and Rome. We have already
"most of their historians in our own tongue: and what
"is still more for the honour of our language, it has
been taught to express with elegance the greatest of their
poets in each nation. The illiterate among our coun"trymen may learn to judge from Dryden's Virgil of the
"most perfect Epic performance: and those parts of Homer
"which have already been published by Mr. Pope, give us
"reason to think the Iliad will appear in English with as
"little disadvantage to that immortal poem."

Notwithstanding all this, Mr. Pope believed, and his friends, as was natural, believed with him, that in 1715 Mr. Addison either translated himself, or employed Mr. Tickell to translate, the first book of the Iliad, in opposition to him.

If we ask on what grounds this extraordinary charge is brought against such a man as Mr. Addison, we are only told of some slight and vague suspicions, without any thing that looks like a proof, either external or internal. What there is of the *latter* tends to consute the charge. For whoever is acquainted with Mr. Addison's style and

manner, must be certain that the translation was not bis own, though Steele in a peevish letter, written against Tickell\*, has, it seems, infinuated some such thing. And for external proof, we have absolutely nothing but a report from hear-say evidence, that Mr. Addison had expressed himself civilly of Tickell's performance; whence it is concluded that this translation was, at least, undertaken by Mr. Addison's advice and authority, if not made by himself.

Still, it will be owned, that so generous a man as Mr. Pope must believe he had some proof of this charge against his friend: and I think, I have, at length discovered what it was.

I have feen a printed copy + of Tickell's translation, in which are entered many criticisms and remarks in Mr. Pope's own hand. And from two of these, compared together, I feem to collect the true ground of the suspicion. But the reader shall judge for himself.

- \* Dedication of the Drummer to Mr. Congreve.
- † It was then in Mr. Warburton's hands. It was afterwards fold, by mistake, among the other books which he had at his house in town, to Mr. T. Payne, and came at length into the possession of Isaac Reed, Esq. of Staple-Inn; who was so obliging as to make me a present of it, to be kept in the library at Hartlebury (in which that of Mr. Pope is included), where it now remains.

To the translation, are prefixed a DEDICATION, and ADVERTISEMENT. The latter is in these words—"I must inform the reader, that, when I began this first book, I had some thoughts of translating the whole lliad: but had the pleasure of being diverted from that design, by finding the work was fallen into a much abler hand. I would not therefore be thought to have any other view in publishing this small specimen of Homer's Iliad, than to bespeak, if possible, the favour of the Public to a translation of Homer's Odysseis, wherein I have already made some progress."

To the words in this advertisement—when I began this first book—Mr. Pope affixes this note—See the first line of the Dedication.

Turning to the dedication, we find it begin thus—"When I first entered upon this translation I was amwibitious of dedicating it to the late Lord Halifax.—Over against which words is, likewise, entered, in Mr. Pope's hand, the following note. The translator was first known to bim [Lord Halifax] four months before bis death. He died in May, 1715.

Now, from comparing these two notes together, one sees clearly how Mr. Pope reasoned on the matter. He concluded from Tickell's saying—when he first entered on this translation, that is, began this first book, he thought of dedicating his work to Lord Halifax—that he could not have

entertained this thought, if he had not at that time been known to Lord Halifax. But it was certain, it feems, that Mr. Tickell was first known to that Lord only four months before his death, in May, 1715. Whence it feemed to follow, that this first book had been written within, or since, that time.

Admitting this conclusion to be rightly made by Mr. Pope, it must indeed be allowed that he had much reafon for his charge of infincerity on Mr. Addison, who, as a friend that had great influence with the translator, would not have advifed, or even permitted, fuch a defign to be entered upon and profecuted by him at this juncture. But there feems not the least ground for such a conclusion. Lord Halifax was the great patron of wits and poets: and if Tickell had formed his defign of translating the Iliad long before Mr. Pope was known to have engaged in that work, he might very well be supposed to think of dedicating to this Mæcenas, as much a stranger as he then Nothing is more common than fuch intenwas to him. tions in literary men; although Mr. Pope might be disposed to conduct himself, in such a case, with more delicacy or dignity.

I fee, then, no reason to infer from the premises, that Mr. Tickell began bis first book but four months before Lord Hallisax's death. For any thing that appears to the contrary, he might have begun, or even finished it, sour

years before that event, and have only relinquished the thoughts of profecuting his translation from the time that he found this work had fallen, as he says, into an abler, that is, Mr. Pope's, band.

These passages, however, of the Advertisement and Dedication, reslected upon and compared together, surnished Mr. Pope, as I suppose, with the chief of those odd concurring circumstances, which, as we are told , convinced him that this translation of the first book of the lliad was published with Mr. Addison's participation, if not composed by him. If the work had been begun but four months before its appearance, it must have been at least by his allowance and participation: if before that time (Mr. Tickell's acquaintance with Lord Halisax not being of so early a date) it was, most probably, his own composition. And to this latter opinion, it seems, Mr. Pope inclined.

How inconclusive these reasonings are, we have now seen. All that remains therefore is to account for the publication at such a time. And for this, I see not why Mr. Tickell's own reason may not be accepted as the true one—that be bad no other view in publishing this specimen, than to be speak the savour of the publick to a translation of the Odysseis, in which be bad made some progress.

The time, it must be owned, was an unlucky onc. But if Mr. Addison had reason to believe his friend's

motive

<sup>\*</sup> In the notes on Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot.

motive to be that which he professed, he might think it not sit to divert him from a work which was likely to serve his interest (poetical translation being at that time the most lucrative employment of a man of letters), and though it had less merit than Mr. Pope's, to do him some credit. And for the civility of speaking well of his translation afterwards, or even of assisting him in the revisal of it, this was certainly no more than Mr. Addison's friendship for the translator required.

That Mr. Addison had, in fact, no unfriendly intention in the part he had taken in this affair, is certain from the passage before cited from the Free-holder, where he speaks so honourably, in May 1716, of Mr. Pope's translation, after all the noise that had been made about Mr. Tickell's first book in the summer of 1715. We may indeed impute this conduct to fear, or dissimulation: but a charge of this nature ought surely not to be made, but on the clearest and best grounds.

I have the rather introduced these observations into the account of my friend's life, as he himself had been led by Mr. Pope's authority to credit the imputation on Mr. Addison, and, on more occasions than one, had given a countenance to it. And it is but justice to him to assure the reader that when, some years before his death, I shewed him this Vindication, he professed himself so much satisf

fied with it, as to fay, if he lived to fee another edition of Mr. Pope's works, he would strike out the offensive reflexions on Mr. Addison's character.

To return now to our subject.

We left Mr. Warburton illustrating the works of one of our great poets, and vindicating the moral character of another. But whatever amusements, or friendly offices, might employ his pen, he never lost fight of what he had most at heart, the defence of religion. And a controversy then carrying on, concerning the miraculous powers of the Christian Church, between Dr. Middleton and his opponents, and so managed, on both sides, as to hurt the cause of Christianity itself, gave him occasion to explain his own sentiments on the subject in an admirable book, entitled Julian; or, A Discourse concerning the earthquake and siery eruption which defeated that emperor's attempt to rebuild the temple at Jerusalem. This work was published in 1750, and is written throughout in the genuine spirit of its author.

It is introduced by an exquisite preface on the literary character of the Fathers, and on the condition of moral science before, and after, the appearance of Christianity.

This excellent book had the fate of the author's other writings, to be censured at home. In a letter from Prior-Park to Dr. Balguy, Jan. 17, 1751-2,—"They tell me," says he, "there are some remarks published against my "Julian.

" Julian. I don't know the nature of them, nor ever " shall. That matter interests every clergyman, that is to 66 fay, every Christian, in England, as much as myself. "Besides, I have long since bid adieu to controversy. "give my fentiments to the publick, and there's an end. "If any body will oppose them, he has my leave. "body will defend them, he has my thanks. I propound "them freely: I explain them as clearly and enforce them " as strongly, as I can. I think I owe no more either to " myself or truth. I am sure I owe no more to the publick. "Besides, I know a little (as you will see by the new edi-"tion of the first and second volumes of D. L.) how to " correct myself; so have less need of this assistance from "others: which you will better understand, when you " fee that I have not received the least affishance from the " united endeavours of that numerous band of answerers, " who have spared no freedoms in telling me of my faults." Again, some months afterwards, writing to the same

friend-Bedford Row, May 12, 1752, he observes,

-" I think you judge rightly of the effects of Lord "Bolingbroke's writings, as well as of their character. As " to his discourse on the Canon of Scripture, I think it " below all criticism, though it had mine. He mentions " (and I believe, with good faith) that foolish rabbinical " fable of Esdras' restoring the whole lost canon by Inspi-"ration; and argues from it. However the redoubtable " pen

" pen of Sykes, though now worn to the stumps, is drawn "upon him; or, at least, threatened to be drawn. "threatened, too, to draw it upon poor Julian, but he left "the execution to another. And who do you think that "other proves? Somebody or other, by far more curious "than myfelf, would unearth this vermin: And he is " found to be one Nichols, which your university some "time ago profecuted for stealing their books, or rather " fhould have profecuted. Have I not reason to blame "you for your ill-timed clemency? Had they hanged "him, as Justice called upon them to do, my book had " been fafe. It is true, he has not fulfilled the old "proverb, but rather contributed to a new one, "Save a " rogue from the gallows, and——he will endeavour to " fave his fellow. I had gibbeted up Julian, and he " comes by night to cut him down."—The pleasantry of these reflexions has drawn me into a citation of them. Otherwise, it was scarce worth while to tell the reader what fome of our own prejudiced countrymen thought of Julian. For the learned abroad were generally much taken with this work. Among others, the president Montesquieu\*,

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Quand vous verrez Mr. le Docteur Warburton, je vous prie de lui "dire l'idée agréable que je me fais de faire plus ample connoissance avec "lui; d'aller trouver la fource du sçavoir, et de voir la lumiere de l'ef- "prit: son ouvrage sur Julien m'a enchanté, quoique je n'aie que de très "mauvais lecteurs anglois, et que j'ai presque oublié tout ce que j'en sçavois."

who, it seems, was then meditating a visit to his friends in England, writes thus to Mr. Charles Yorke from Paris, June 6, 1753: "When you see Dr. Warburton, pray let "him know the satisfaction I propose to myself in making a further acquaintance with him, and in taking a nearer "view of his great talents. His Julian charms me; al- "though I have but indifferent English readers, and have, "myself, forgotten a great deal of what I once knew of "that language."

And speaking of this work some years afterwards, in a letter to me, Mr. Warburton says, "My Julian has had a "great effect in France, where Free-thinking holds its head as high as in England. This is a consolation to me, as "my sole aim is to repress that infernal spirit." And again, —"It has procured me the good will of the best and greatest man "in France, while there is hardly a noble-"man in England knows I have written such a book †."

<sup>• \*</sup> Duc de Noailles.—The intelligence was communicated to the author by his friend, M. de Silhouette: who was a great admirer of his writings, and translated some of them. See Preface to Alliance.

<sup>†</sup> In planning his treatife on Julian, he had proposed, as the title-page sets forth, to enquire into the nature of that evidence, which will demand the assent of every reasonable man to a miraculous sail. But this part of his plan he reserved for another discourse. The subject was, in sact, resumed, and has been sufficiently explained in the discourse on the Resurrection, vol. V. p. 473.

This admirable work, as I observed, took its rise from Dr. Middleton's Inquiry concerning the miraculous powers in the Christian Church. That ingenious man died towards the end of this year; and although some difference had arisen between them in 1741, and scems to have kept them afunder for the rest of Dr. Middleton's life, yet no change appears to have been made, by this misadventure, in Mr. Warburton's opinion or even esteem of him, (so constant was he in his friendships!) as the reader will see in the following extract from a letter, which he wrote to me just before the Doctor's death: "Prior-Park, July 11, "1750.—I hear Dr. Middleton has been at London (I sup-" pose to consult Dr. Heberden \* about his health) and is " returned in an extreme bad condition.-- I am much concerned for the poor man, and wish he may recover, "with all my heart. Had he had, I will not fay, piety, 66 but greatness of mind enough, not to suffer the pre-"tended injuries of some Churchmen to prejudice him " against Religion, I should love him living, and honour

\* Dr. Heberden had been well known to Dr. Middleton at Cambridge, where he flourished in great reputation for several years, and then removed to London. He has now [1794], for some time past, declined all business; but, through the whole course of his practice, was the most universally esteemed, of any physician I have known, not only for his skill, but generosity, in the exercise of his profession.—My own personal obligations to him must be my excuse for the liberty I take in paying this small tribute of respect to his merit and character.

" his

"his memory, when dead. But, good God, that many
for the discourtesses done him by his miserable fellowcreatures, should be content to divest himself of the true
viaticum, the comfort, the solace, the asylum from all
the evils of human life, is perfectly astonishing! I
believe no one (all things considered) has suffered more
from the low and vile passions of the high and low
amongst our brethren, than myself. Yet God forbid, it
should ever suffer me to be cold in the Gospel-interests!
which are indeed so much my own, that without it I
should be disposed to consider humanity, as the most
forlorn part of the creation."

What this letter tenderly hints at, was the exact truth. Dr. Middleton was an elegant scholar, and very fine writer: but, his vanity having engaged him early in religious controversy on a subject which he did not understand, he had given just offence to some considerable Churchmen, and yet would not condescend to recover their good opinion by retracting what he had hastily and unwarily advanced. Hence, the obstruction to his views of preferment; which by degrees soured his temper so much, that his best friends (as Mr. Warburton sound by experience) could not calm his resentments, or keep them from breaking out into some unhappy prejudices against Religion itself. This misadventure was the effect of his passion, not judgement: for his knowledge of theology was but slight, and his talents

not those which qualified him to excell in that science. The bent of his genius and studies lay another way, and had raised him to great eminence in polite literature; of which his *Letter from Rome*, and his *Life of Cicero*, are shining instances. His other works are of much less value, and will soon be forgotten.

Nothing shews the extent of Mr. Warburton's genius, and the command he had of it, more, than his being able to mix the lightest with the most serious studies, and to pass, as his friend speaks,

"From grave to gay, from lively to fevere," with so much grace and facility: a striking instance of which power we have, here, in finding Julian between our two poets. For in the very next year [1751] he appeared again, as a critic and commentator, in the noble edition he gave of Mr. Pope's works. And, as here there was no room for emendatory criticism, of all others the eafiest to be misapplied or misconstrued, so the public found very little to censure on this occasion. Indeed the main object of the edition being to do justice to his friend, it was natural for him to exert his whole force upon it; and as none can divine so happily of a poet's meaning, as the well-exercised critic, if he be at the same time of a congenial spirit with his author, it is no wonder that he made this (what I formerly faid of it, and still think it to be) the best edition that was ever given of any classick.

But, admirable as Mr. Warburton was in this elegant species of literature, we are now to take our leave of him under that character; his editions of Shakespear and Pope being, as he himself expressed it to me, amusements, which his fondness for the works of one poet, and for the person of another, had engaged him in. We are, henceforth, to see him only in his proper office of Divine; which he resumed, when Mr. Pope's volumes were out of his hands, and ennobled by a set of Sermons, preached by him at Lincoln's-Inn, and entitled Principles of Natural and Revealed Religion, in two volumes; the former published in 1752, and the other in 1754; to which he added a third in 1767, consisting chiefly of occasional discourses.

I bring his works of this fort together under one view, that I may confider them at once, and give the reader an idea of their true character.

He had used himself very little to write sermons, till he came to Lincoln's-Inn. His instructions to his parish had either been delivered without notes, or extracted from the plainest discourses of our best preachers. In his present situation, he found it necessary to compose his sermons, and with care; his audience consisting wholly of men of education, and those accustomed to reasoning and inquiry. Here was then a scene, in which his learning and knowledge might be produced with good effect; and it was in this kind of discourse, that his taste and studies had qua-

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lified him to excell. His fermons are accordingly, all of them, of this cast; not slight harangues on ordinary subjects, but close, weighty, methodical discourses, on the most momentous doctrines of natural and revealed religion; opening the grounds of them, and supporting them against objections; expressed in that style of nervous eloquence, which was natural to him, and brightened occasionally, but without affectation, by the liveliest strokes of imagination. In short, they were written for the use of men of parts and learning, and will only be relished by such. They are masterly in their way; but sitter for the closet, than the church; I mean, those mixt auditories, that are usually to be expected in that place.

There had been a friendship of long standing between Mr. Warburton and Mr. Charles Yorke; cultivated with great affection and esteem on both sides; the fruit of which appeared in 1753, in the offer of a prebend in the church of Gloucester, by the Lord Chancellor Hardwicke. In acknowledgement of this favour Mr. Warburton addressed the sirst volume of the D. L. to his Lordship, when he gave the next edition of that work. Some, who were curious in observing coincidencies, and meant to do honour both to the patron and client, took notice that the stall, to which Mr. Warburton was preferred, was the same in which the Lord Chancellor Nottingham, that great patron of all the learned Churchmen in his time, had placed Dr. Cudworth:

worth: Such a similitude was there apprehended to be between the two Magistrates; and, still more strikingly, between the two Divines, authors of The Intellectual System, and The Divine Legation!

But what idea of Dignity foever might be annexed to this prebend, he exchanged it, a year or two after, for one of more value in the church of Durham, which Bishop Trevor (who did himself honour by the disposal of his preferments) very obligingly gave him at the request of Mr. Murray (now Attorney General) in 1755.

He had been made Chaplain to the King, the year before; and that promotion, as well as the present, making it decent for him to take his Doctor's degree, the Archbishop of Canterbury, Dr. Herring, very wisely took to himself the honour (which the University of Oxford had unhappily declined) of conferring that distinction upon him.

But while his friends were vying with each other in their good offices and attempts to ferve him, a matter far more interesting to him, than any preferment, engaged his attention during the course of these two years.

Lord Bolingbroke died in 1751, and his philosophical works were published in 1753. Every one knows the principles and presumption of that unhappy nobleman. He was of that sect, which, to avoid a more odious name, chuses to distinguish itself by that of *Naturalism*; and had boasted in private, what feats he should be able to perform

perform, in the attack, he had long threatened, on all our metaphysics and theology; in other words, on natural and revealed religion.

Some had the simplicity to believe him on his word; and others, it may be, wished him success. All serious men stood aghast at the loud vaunts of this Goliah of the insidel party; and, preposses with the ideas of consequence, which the fond applauses of his friends, and (what must ever be lamented) of his tuneful friend, had thrown about him, waited with anxiety for the event.

In the mean time, as that friend faid divinely well (for furely, in this instance, he prophesied, as well as sang)

- "Heaven with loud laughter the vain toil furveys,
- " And buries madmen in the heaps they raise."

Dr. Warburton had very early penetrated the views of Lord Bolingbroke; and, observing some tincture of his principles (but without the knowledge of the author, who could not be trusted with the secret) artfully instilled into the Essay on Man, had incurred his immortal hatred by making the discovery, and, in consequence of it, by reasoning Mr. Pope out of bis bands. It was easy to foresee what would follow from this vigilant and able Divine, when his Lordship's godless volumes should come forth; and the dread of it seems to have kept them back, for the

<sup>\*</sup> Works, Vol. VII. p. 839.

remainder of his life. The interval, however, was made good use of, in seasoning them with poignant invectives against the Alliance and Divine Legation, and with whole pages of the grossest personal abuse. So that, when they appeared, Dr. Warburton was provoked, as well as prepared, to give them a strict examination, and was animated to the undertaking by a just resentment, as well as religious zeal.

And these two principles (the most operative in our nature) were never exerted to better purpose, or with greater effect. He planned the View of his Philosophy in Four Letters to a Friend\*, and in writing it has surpassed himself; the reasoning and the wit being alike irresistible, the strongest and keenest that can be conceived. He himself was not a little pleased with this work, and says in considence to a friend †, "I have given to it all the sinishing in my power; and reckon, if any thing of mine should stumble down to posterity, it will have as good a "chance as any. And now—Cæssus artemque repono."

Some of Dr. Warburton's friends (fuch of them, I mean, as had been the friends of Mr. Pope) had, of course, been acquainted with Lord Bolingbroke; and were very naturally in the common opinion of his parts and abilities, without knowing much, or perhaps any thing, of his

<sup>\*</sup> Mr. Allen of Prior-Park.

<sup>+</sup> Dr. Balguy.

religious sentiments. These were likely to take offence at the freedom of the *View*, which was to shew him in a light very different from that in which the world had hitherto seen him. The consequence to himself was clearly foreseen, and with no small concern.

Writing from P. P. to Mr. C. Yorke, Aug. 24, 1754, while these letters were drawing up, he says—" I am busy " with my fecond volume of Sermons, which I propose to "publish early in the winter. I amuse myself too with "another thing, which, were you here, you would be " plagued with: because I never like my things so well " as while you are reading them. I have a better reason " for your reading them. But, to tell you the truth, this "flatters me most. The thing will be without my name, " and a fecret. I wish it may in no degree displease one "I have so much reason to value, as our friend; nay, I "would not have it displease any of his friends, on his " account. You will ask me then why I venture upon it? "I will tell you fincerely. I think it my duty; for I am "a Christian. I think I was designed to be the declared " enemy of Infidelity; for I am a little fanatical."

In a letter also to me, Sept. 7, 1754, he says—"As to my View of Bolingbroke, I tell it you in considence, I am apprehensive of displeasing some by it whom I most honour, and at a critical time. So that I solemnly assure you, nothing but the sense of indispensable duty, as a

"Christian and a Clergyman, could have induced me to run the hazard of doing myself so much injury. But "jaEla est alea. All other considerations are now past with me; and I let Providence take its course without any solicitude on my part."

And again, Dec. 10, 1754, some time after the two sirst letters were published, and while he was preparing the two last—" I go on pushing this grand enemy of God" and Godliness. But what I predicted to you, I am sorry to tell you, I have experienced to be true; that I tread per cineres dolosos. However, my duty tells me, this is a capital case, and I must on."

What he alludes to, is an anonymous letter, fent him by the post, and expostulating with him, but in the friend-liest terms, on the manner in which he had treated the subject of the View, in the parts already printed. He guessed at the writer, and had the highest respect for him. He resolved, therefore, to make his apology to him, and (as he was denied the opportunity of a private explanation) in a public answer to his letter. Accordingly, in 1755, he printed the two concluding letters of the View, with an Apology for the two first; which now stands in this edition, as it did in the subsequent ones of the View in the author's life-time, as a presatory discourse in vindication of the whole work. The occasion of the subject fired the

writer. His very foul came out in every fentence, and is no where feen to more advantage than in this Apology; which is written throughout with a peculiar glow of fentiment and expression, and is, at once, the most interesting, and the most masterly of all his works.

It had the effect, which was natural, on the fo much refpected letter-writer; who thought fit to preferve an inviolable filence in regard to this apology, but, by a fignal act of friendship, done to the author very soon after, shewed how entirely satisfied he was with him.

As to the View itself, it was universally read and admired. The followers of Lord Bolingbroke and his philosophy hung their heads: the friends of religion took heart: and these big volumes of impiety sunk immediately into utter contempt.

After this complete triumph over the great Chieftain of his party, it would scarce be worth while to celebrate his successes against inferior adventurers, if one of them had not published his own shame; and if what I owe to Dr. Warburton's memory did not require me to explain a trifling matter, in which I happened to be concerned.

Mr. Hume had given an early specimen of his freethinking philosophy in some super-subtile lucubrations of the metaphysical kind: which however did no great mischief to religion; and, what chagrined him almost as much, contributed but little to his own fame, being too sublime, fublime, or too dark, for the apprehensions of his readers. For so good a purpose as that of affisting in the common cause of impiety, he thought fit to come out of the clouds, and to attempt a popular vein of writing, as the more likely to get himself read and talked of in the world. In 1749 he therefore gave the publick a hash of his stale notions, served up in the taking form and name of Essays, and with a stronger, at least a more undisguised, mixture of Atheism than before.

Dr. Warbuiton, who was then fending his Julian to the press, saw these Essays, and had thoughts of closing that work with some strictures upon them. In a letter of Sept. 28, of that year, to a friend at Cambridge, he fays, -"I am tempted to have a stroke at Hume in parting. "He is the author of a little book called Philosophical " Essays: In one part of which he argues against the being " of a God; and in another (very needlessly, you will say) " against the possibility of miracles. He has crowned the "liberty of the press. And yet he has a considerable " post under the government. I have a great mind to do " justice on his arguments against miracles, which I think " might be done in few words. But does he deserve this "notice? Is he known amongst you? Pray, answer me "these questions. For if his own weight keeps him down, "I should be forry to contribute to his advancement to any " place, but the pillory."

No encouraging answer, I suppose, was returned to this letter; and fo the author of the Essays escaped, for this His next effort was to discredit Religion by what he calls, its natural bistory. This book came out early in 1757, and falling into the hands of Dr. Warburton, provoked him, by its uncommon licentiousness, to enter on the margin, as he went along, fuch remarks as occurred to him. And when that was too narrow to contain them all, he put down the rest on loose scraps of paper, which he stuck between the leaves. In this state the book was shewn to me (as I chanced at that time to be in London with the author) merely as matter of curiofity, and to give me an idea of the contents, how mischievous and extravagant they were. He had then written remarks on about two thirds of the volume: And I liked them so well that I advised him, by all means, to carry them on through the remaining parts of it, and then to fit them up, in what way he thought best, for public use, which I told him they very well deferved. He put by this propofal flightly; but, when I pressed him again on this head, some time after, in a letter from Cambridge, he wrote me the following answer.

"As to Hume, I had laid it aside ever since you were here. I will now, however, sinish my skeleton. It will be hardly that. If then you think any thing can be made of it, and will give yourself the trouble, we may

" may perhaps between us do a little good, which I dare " fay we shall both think will be worth a little pains. "I have any force in the first rude beating out the mass, "you are best able to give it the elegance of form and " fplendour of polish. This will answer my purpose, to " labour together in a joint work to do a little good. " will tell you fairly, it is no more the thing it should be, " than the Dantzick iron at the forge is the gilt and painted " ware at Birmingham. It will make no more than a " pamphlet; but you shall take your own time, and make "it your fummer's amusement, if you will. I propose it " bear fomething like this title—" Remarks on Mr. Hume's 44 late Essay, called, The natural bistory of Religion, by a "Gentleman of Cambridge, in a Letter to the Rev. Dr. "Warburton.'—I propose the address should be with the "dryness and reserve of a stranger, who likes the method " of the Letters on Bolingbroke's philosophy, and follows " it here, against the same fort of writer, inculcating the " fame impiety, Naturalism, and employing the same kind The address will remove it from me; " of arguments. "the author, a gentleman of Cambridge, from you; and "the fecrecy of printing, from us both."

I faw by this letter, he was not disposed to take much trouble about the thing. Accordingly his papers were soon after sent down to me at Cambridge, pretty much in the state I had seen them in at London, so far as they then

then went, only with additional entries in the latter part of the book. However, in this careless detached form, I thought his observations too good to be lost. And the hint of the Address suggested the means of preserving them, without any injury to his reputation, and indeed without much labour to myself. Having, therefore, transcribed the Remarks \* with little alteration, I only wrote a short introduction and conclusion, merely to colour the proposed siction; and in this form, sent them to the press.

When Dr. Warburton faw the pamphlet, he faid, I should have done much more, and worked up his hasty remarks in my own way. He doubted, also, whether the contrivance, as I had managed it, would not be seen through. But in this he was mistaken; for the disguise, as thin as it was, answered its purpose in keeping the real author out of sight.

Mr. Hume in particular (understanding, I suppose, from his bookseller, who was also mine, that the manuscript came from me) was the first to fall into the trap. He was much hurt, and no wonder, by so lively an attack upon him, and could not help confessing it in what he calls his own Life; in which he has thought sit to honour me with greater marks of his resentment, than any other of the

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<sup>\*</sup> They are given in this edition [Vol. VI. p. 8.47.] in their original form.

writers against him: nay the spiteful man goes so far as to upbraid me with being a follower (indeed a closer, in this instance, than he apprehended) of the Warburtonian school.

This idle story would not have been worth the telling, but for the reason already given, That I could not, in justice to the author, take the merit of so fine a work to myself. And yet in disclaiming it, the reader sees, I make but an aukward sigure, as being obliged to open the secret of our little stratagem, in which the grace of it mainly consists.

Dr. Warburton had now, for some time, been preparing, and in 1758 he printed, a correct and improved edition of the first volume of the D. L. The notes to this edition are numerous and large; some of which are answers to objections made to him by Archbishop Secker. "Where you find me, says he in a Letter to one of his friends [P. P. April 19, 1758], speaking, in the notes, of objections that have been made, understand them of the present Archbishop's, who formerly gave me some sheets of them, which I have still by me, and have in this edition considered all I thought worth observing."

Dr. Secker was a wise man, an edifying preacher, and an exemplary Bishop. But the course of his life and studies had not qualified him to decide on such a work, as that of the D. L. Even in the narrow walk of literature he most affected, that of criticizing the Hebrew text, it does not appear that he attained to any great distinction. His chief merit (and surely it was a very great one) lay in explaining clearly and popularly, in his sermons, the principles delivered by his friend, Bishop Butler, in his samous book of *The Analogy*, and in shewing the important use of them to Religion.

Of this last admirable prelate, what Dr. Warburton's fentiments were, appears from a letter he wrote to Dr. Balguy on his death, which happened in 1752-"You " have heard of the death of the poor Bishop of Durham. "The Church could have spared some other prelates "much better; and, in its prefent condition, could but ill " spare him. For his morals and serious sense of religion " (to fay nothing of his intellectual endowments) did ho-" nour to his station. His death is particularly unhappy " for his chaplain, Dr. Fortler. He is my friend, whom "I much value, as one of great worth, and whose ill luck "I much lament. He has not only feen his hopes drop "through, when he was every thing but in the very " possession of them, but has lost a patron, who deserved "the name of friend, which goes much harder in the sepa-" ration than the other." [P. P. June 21, 1752.]

In the memoirs of such a life, as I am now writing, nothing, I am sensible, interests the reader less than the chapter of preferments. Yet these must not be wholly

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overlooked. Towards the end of the year 1757 Dr. Warburton had been promoted to the Deanery of Bristol. And in the beginning of the year 1760, by Mr. Allen's interest with the minister, Mr. Pitt, he was advanced to the Bishoprick of Gloucester.

## III.

In the common estimation, this last was a preferment suitable to his merit. Mr. Pitt himself gloried in it, as what did honour to his administration. I remember to have seen a letter of his, in which he said—that nothing of a private nature, since be had been in office, had given him so much pleasure, as his bringing Dr. Warburton upon the bench. This virtuous self-gratulation became the minister; and others may be of his mind. But I have sometimes doubted with myself, whether the proper scene of abilities, like his, be not a private station, where only great writers have the leisure to do great things.

Here, at least, it was that THE ALLIANCE and DIVINE LEGATION were written: And here, too, was composed the immortal work of Ecclesiastical Polity, which, in the end, proved so fatal to our English Disciplinarians; now rising again in the shape of Levellers and Socinians; but to fall again, in good time, by one or other of our learned clergy, going forth against them, in the spirit of order.

order and orthodoxy, from the cool invigorating shade of private life.

But let me not be misunderstood. When I say that great men should not be taken from their privacy, I speak of great men indeed. The Church is, no doubt, much benefited and adorned by a learned prelacy. The pastoral functions cannot well be discharged by any other. But a genius of the high order, here mentioned, is given by a gracious Providence, now and then, in a course of ages, to correct, as Dr. Middleton observed, the sentiments and manners of mankind.

Such a man as this, is lessened by elevation: he is, in himself, methinks, too great to be advanced.

But be this, as it may; it must be allowed that religion and learning suffered somewhat by his promotion, as it interrupted those designs which he had formed for the service of both, and would have executed, if his whole time had been at his command. He himself lamented this inconvenience of his public station; and, after all, was not able (such was the root his former habits of study had taken in him) to be so active in it as he wished.

\* Soon after I had hazarded this prediction, I had the pleasure to see one half of it completely sulfilled. See Dr. Horsley's Charge to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of St. Alban's, and his unanswerable Letters, in vindication of it.—This able Divine was deservedly advanced to the see of St. David's in 1788; and has since [1793] been translated to that of Rochester.

He performed the ordinary duties of his office with regularity; but further than this he could not prevail with himself to go. And perhaps, on the whole, it was better that he did not; as the leisure he thus procured to himself, was spent to more advantage in defending Religion, than it could have been in a vain endeavour to support that discipline, which the spirit of the times has utterly overthrown.

They who stood at a distance from him, and knew him only by the report of such as had no kindness for him, concluded, at least, that he would take an active part in the House of Lords. I have heard of a certain minister, who dreaded his promotion on this account, and thought he saw a second Atterbury in the new Bishop of Gloucester. But all such were egregiously mistaken. Alas, he had neither talents nor inclination for parliamentary intrigue or parliamentary eloquence. He had other instruments of fame and consideration in his hands, and was infinitely above the vanity of being caught

"With the fine notion of a busy man," as one of our poets \* well expresses it.

On the 30th of January, 1760, ten days after his confecration, he preached the customary sermon before the Lords. I mention this only, because his sermon, which of course was printed, is one of the best he ever wrote,

and the best, without question, that ever was preached on that day. It could not be any other, fince, besides his great abilities, as a writer, he possessed a perfect knowledge of our hillory, and of that period of it in particular. I have heard him fay, there was fcarce a pamphlet or memoir, published between 1640 and 1660, which he had not read. This predilection for the history of the rebellion, feems to have been occasioned by a circumstance just touched by me in the entrance of this discourse. I obferved that his grandfather had been active in that scene. His grandmother, a woman of sense and spirit, lived to a great age, and would often (as I have heard him fay) take a pleasure to relate to him, when a boy, such passages of those times as she remembered and was well acquainted with. This taste of those transactions, made interesting to him by the part which his family had taken in them, raifed an eager curiofity in him, as he grew up, to know more of the subject. And thus, he not only acquired an early infight into that part of our history, but continued through life to be fo fond of it, that he had thoughts, at one time, of writing the history of the civil wars; and would without doubt have done it with fupreme ability. and, as the tenour of his fermon shews, with equal candour, if the studies of his own profession had left him at leifure to engage in fo great a work.

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Lord Clarendon was one of his favourite characters, as well as writers; he honoured the man, and admired his history of the Grand Rebellion in the highest degree. Yet there is a copy of that work, now extant and in the hands of his family, in which he has entered marginal notes containing so minute a censure of all that is blameable in it, that a stranger who had heard nothing of his predilection for Lord Clarendon, would be apt to think him an enemy to the noble person's writings and reputation. With such wonderful impartiality is the censure made \*!

Another instance of his skill in the story of those times, and of his fairness in representing it, may be mentioned. When he was one summer in residence at Durham, he found Neal's history of the Puritans in their library, and for his amusement took it with him to his own house, and scribbled enough upon the margins of the several volumes (I use his own words in a letter to me), to expose and confute the mislakes and misrepresentations of the writer. By the favour of a friend, I have obtained a correct copy of those notes, and believe the reader will agree with me, that they deserve a place in this complete collection of his works ‡.

<sup>\*</sup> Since I wrote this paragraph, the valuable copy, alluded to, of Lord Clarendon's history has been very obligingly put into my hands, to be preferved in Hartlebury Library.

<sup>+</sup> Vol. VI. p. 891.

To put things of a fort together, I will here mention another book, which he has rendered valuable by some manuscript animadversions. Writing to me from Weymouth, where Mr. Allen had a house, and where he generally passed some part of the year with his family, he tells me how his hours of leisure were employed at that place. The letter is dated Sept. 3, 1758. "If you were here, you would see how I have scribbled over the margins of Tindal's Christianity as Old as the Creation." I think I have him as sure as I had Collins. That is, I overturn the pillars of this samous edisice of impiety: "which all the writers against him hitherto have left standing: busying themselves only to untile his roof." This is my present amusement for a fortnight at Weymouth \*."

The Bishoprick of Gloucester was the more agreeable to him (as the Deanery of Bristol had been for the same reason) on account of its situation, being in the neighbourhood of Prior-Park. At so small a distance from his diocese, he could perform the duties of it without much trouble, or loss of time in journeys, which were always irksome to him. Yet some months in the summer he usually passed at Gloucester, and resided there altogether after Mrs. Allen's death.

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<sup>\*</sup> This book is also in my possession, and will be found in the Library at Hartlebury.

Wherever he was, he chiefly employed himself in revising his printed works, with the view of making them as complete and useful as he could.

Among others, he spent some time on his Sermons; and in 1761 he reprinted one of them, which he took to be of importance, in a small size, that it might be more known, than it was likely to be in the larger volume. This was a well-confidered and elaborate discourse on the Lord's Supper: a fubject, which had been so embroiled by two eminent writers of opposite principles, that it became necessary to take it out of their hands, and to guard the publick from being bewildered and missed, either by a Popish or Socinian comment. In a moderate compass (for he never dealt in the verbiage of ordinary writers) he has refuted the fystem of either party, and explained his own notion of the facrament (which was, also, that of the great Cudworth) in fo clear a manner, that few men of fense and judgement will now question where the truth lies.

But the good Bishop was always meditating something for the benefit of religion. What is called Methodism, had now spread among the people. It was a new species of Puritanism, or rather the old one revived under a new name. This sect first appeared at Oxford, where two fellows of colleges, Mr. George Whitesield and Mr. John Wesley, were its chief promoters and supports. They were both of them, it may be, frank enthusiasts at setting

out. The former is faid to have been a weak, the latter was unquestionably a shrewd, man.

Mr. Wesley had rambled through a part of Germany and North America, as well as Great Britain and Ireland, pretending every where to a fort of Apostolic mission: and, at a convenient distance of time from these peregrinations, his manner was to print journals of them, for the edistation of his followers. The Bishop of Gloucester had watched his motions with care for some years; and now thought he had gained such an insight into his views and character from his journals, which he constantly read, as to be able to give a fair and full account of him to the publick.

It feems to have been principally for this reason that he altered and enlarged what he had written on the influence of the Holy Spirit, in the second volume of his Sermons: or rather, he composed that discourse anew, and with many improvements moulded it into a regular treatise on the subject; which he published in 1762, under the name of The Doctrine of Grace: or, The Office and Operations of the Holy Spirit vindicated from the insults of Insidelity, and the abuses of Fanaticism, in two small volumes, 12mo \*.

He defigned this work, as the title shews, for a vindication of that most important Christian doctrine from the

<sup>\*</sup> See Vol. V. of this edition, p. 535, &c.

abuses of libertine as well as fanatical writers. The former he confuted with his usual energy and precision. The latter, as not being accessible on the side of reason, he attacked with ridicule, in holding up to view and exposing their leader and architype, John Wesley, out of the materials, largely surnished to him in that adventurer's own journals. This discourse, like Pascal's Letters, and for the same reason, the singular merit of the composition, will be read, when the sect, that gave occasion to it, is forgotten; or rather the sect will find a sort of immortality in this discourse.

As to the grave and reasoning part of this work, that also, as I said, is written with great weight and authority. But I think I see a degree of labour, in the expression of some parts, which shews his pen had now lost something of its wonted freedom and facility, though it retained its force.

From this time, he seems to have planned no new work of difficulty and length, but to have confined himself very properly to the single purpose of giving the last finishing\* to his former writings.

\* The Bishop grew very exact and critical in giving the later editions of his works; so that he would review the same sheet several times, and, of course, gave the compositor no small trouble. Which made his learned printer, Mr. Bowyer, whom he much esteemed for his friendly qualities, as well as merit in his profession, say pleasantly to him on a certain occasion—'Those were sine times, when you never blotted a line, but allowed me to print your copy as fast as it came to hand, and without interruption.'

Accordingly in 1765 he published a new edition of the Second Part of the D. L. in three volumes; and, as it had now received his last hand, he presented it to his great friend, Lord Manssield; as he had done the former part, when finished to his mind, to Lord Hardwicke. But there was this difference in the character of the two Dedications. That to the Lord Chancellor, was respectful and ceremonious, being little more than a letter of thanks to his patron: this other to the Chief Justice, was sublime and pathetic, in short, the overflowing of an affectionate heart to a generous and much-esteemed friend.

The subject, too, of the latter is of that high importance which a great writer chuses, when he would consult his own and his friend's dignity, and transmit them both, with advantage, to succeeding times. It sets before him the state of religion in England for half a century past, and, with a considential freedom, deduces the causes of that alarming neglect, into which it had fallen, and by which indeed the author had been induced to project this defence of it, and to put it into his Lordship's hands. The information is interesting; and the manner in which it is conveyed, solemn and awful. It will be read hereafter with no small attention; and the time will come, when this discourse will be reckoned among the chief honours of the noble person addressed.

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This edition of 1765, besides many other improvements, with which it was enriched, is further distinguished by a remarkable discourse, printed at the close of the last volume, and entitled, An appendix concerning the book of Job; In this short piece (which is exquisitely written) he repells an attack made upon him by Dr. Lowth. The dispute was managed, on both sides, with too much heat; but, on the part of the Bishop, with that superiority of wit and argument, which, to say the truth, in all his controversial writings, he could not well help.

Dr. Lowth, afterwards Bishop of London, was a man of learning, and ingenuity, and of many virtues: but his friends did his character no service, by affecting to bring his merits, whatever they were, into competition with those of the Bishop of Gloucester. His reputation, as a writer, was raised chiefly on his Hebrew literature, as displayed in those two works—bis Latin Lectures on Hebrew poetry—and bis English Version of the Prophet Isaiab. The former is well and elegantly composed, but in a vein of criticism not above the common: The latter, I think, is chiefly valuable, as it shews how little is to be expected from Dr. Kennicott's work (which yet the learned Bishop pronounces to be the greatest and most important, that has been undertaken and accomplished since the revival of letters\*), and from a new translation of the Bible, for public use.

On the subject of his quarrel with the Bishop of Gloucester, I could say a great deal; for I was well acquainted with the grounds and the progress of it. But, besides that I purposely avoid entering into details of this fort, I know of no good end that is likely to be answered by exposing to public censure the weaknesses of such men.

In the next year, 1766, he gave a new and much-improved edition of *The Alliance*; meaning to leave these two great works, now wrought up to all the perfection he could bestow upon them, as legacies to the publick; or rather as monuments to posterity of his unwearied love of the Christian religion, and (for the sake of so dear an interest) of the Church of England.

With a third volume of Sermons, already alluded to, and printed in 1767, he closed his literary course: except that he made an effort towards publishing the IXth and last book of the Divine Legation; on a subject, he had much at heart; which he had long and diligently considered; and which now, for some years, he had been labouring to digest and explain in the best manner he could. But of this matter it will be expected that I give the reader a more particular account.

The argument of the D. L. properly so called, was completed in fix books: but the plan of it required three more; in which the author proposed, as he tells us, "To "remove all conceivable objections against the conclusion, "and

and to throw in every collateral light upon the pre-

lently opposed by many of the clergy, that he grew disgusted at the treatment he met with, and could not be
prevailed upon to finish his design in support of it. His
letters are full of complaints on this head. In 1741,
some time before he published the second volume, he says
to one of his friends—"I am still condemned to drudge
in the mines of antiquity. I may well give it that slavish
appellation, while I am so used by my masters, the
clergy, for whose ease and profit I am working." And
writing to another in 1754, when the two first letters of
the View were coming out, he observes with indignation—
You will see there is a continued apology for the clergy:
yet they will neither love me the more, nor forgive me
the sooner, for all I can say in their behalf t."

And so on a hundred other occasions. The truth is, his resentment at the established clergy for their long and sierce opposition to his favourite work, was the greatest weakness I ever observed in him. The number of books and pamphlets, that appeared against him for twenty years together, was, indeed, very great. But, the nature of his work considered, and his own freedom in dissenting from all others, as occasion offered, what less could be expected?

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. III. p. 504.

<sup>+</sup> MS Letters in my hands.

And when he had given two or three of his principal adversaries, as he did, a complete answer, he should not have fuffered the clamour of the rest to divert him from the great design, he had projected. But his conduct in this instance was not that which might have been expected from his usual magnanimity. When I sometimes expostulated with him upon it, his answer was-" I furely " have reason to think myself very ill used. The enemies " of Revealed Religion and of the Church of England I " have treated as they deserved, and am neither surprized "nor hurt at their resentments against me. To their "censures or commendations I can be equally indifferent. "But that my brothren, the established clergy, the friends " of religion, and fellow-members of that fociety whose " cause I am pleading, that these should set themselves " against me with so much rancour, is what I cannot so "well bear. If indeed the published volumes of the D. L. " be so weak or so mischievous, as they suppose, I will not " add to the offence given them by adding any more."

One fees what was at the bottom of the good man's mind. He loved the Church of England and its ministers, and had shewn his zeal for them on all occasions. He was therefore hurt at not receiving that return of good-will from them, which his life and conscience told him, he might expect, and had deserved. Yet, as much as he felt the injury, and complained of it, he was never moved

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by it (as many others, with less provocation, and of less irritability, have been) to retract his good opinion of them, or to alter his conduct towards them in any respect.

He only withheld the fequel of his capital work from them; and unhappily he persisted in this resolution till time had softened their passions, and, of course, his own. At length, the orthodoxy of his sentiments seemed gradually to be acknowledged; his own resentments proportionably abated; and, from the time he had given the corrected edition of his D. L. in 1765, he was in earnest about resuming so much at least of his long-neglected work, as he had meant to comprize in the last or IXth book. The VIIth and VIIIth (though the materials for them, too, were at hand) he had long since despaired of composing: but this last, being an attempt to give a rationale of Christianity, he anxiously wished, for the importance of the subject, to leave behind him complete.

But the time was now past. Not only the business of his station broke in upon his leisure: The infirmities of age came insensibly upon him. His faculties, hitherto so bright and vigorous, suffered some eclipse and diminution of their force, from his growing indispositions. "I read still," he would often say to me, "with the usual pleasure. But I compose with less ease, and with less spirit." In a letter to me from Gloucester, Sept. 4, 1769, he writes in the following manner.

"I have received your kind letter of advice \*.—You "know, by experience, how difficult it is, when we have "once got into a wicked habit of thinking, to leave it off. "All I can promife is, if that will fatisfy you, to think to "no purpose: And this I know, by experience, I can do; "having done so for many a good day.

"I think you have heard me fay, that my delicious feason is the autumn; the season, which gives most life and vigour to my mental faculties. The light mists, or, as Milton calls them, the seams, that rise from the sields in one of these mornings, give the same relief to the views, that the blue of the plumb (to take my ideas from the season) gives to the appetite. But I now enjoy little of this pleasure, compared to what I formerly had in an autumn-morning, when I used, with a book in my hand, to traverse the delightful lawns and hedge-rows round about the town of Newark, the untbinking place of my nativity."

And again, July 11th, 1770—"Hunter fent me his "View of Lord Bolingbroke's character. He is a good man; but in this book, I think, he has shewn himself very absurd and indiscreet: absurd, in a florid declamation; and indiscreet, as well as very injudicious, in the most extravagant encomium of Bolingbroke's parts that

" ever

<sup>\*</sup> Not to pursue his studies too closely.

"ever was, even to say—be reasoned with the pride of a superior spirit, and I had almost said with the faculties of an angel.

"This disposed me to look again into the reasoning of this *superior spirit*, this angelic man, as I have collected together the best he has, in my View of his Philosophy. I have done it justice. But this retrospect is accompanied with a mortifying conviction, that the time is now past when I was able to write with that force. Expect to find in my future writings the marks of intellectual decay. But so much for that matter."

In my answer to this letter from Thurcaston, July the 23d, to sooth the mind of my friend under this unwelcome discovery, and to prevail upon him, if I could, to relax those efforts in composition, which, not being so easy to him as they had been, might affect his health and spirits, I wrote as follows—"As to what you say of your not "writing with the force, you formerly did, it may very well be, and yet be no subject of mortification. For, besides that you can afford to abate something of your antient force and yet have enough lest, force itself has not, in all periods of life, the same grace. The close of one of these long and bright days has not the slame and heat of noon, and would be less pleasing if it had. And I know not why it may not be true, in the critical as well as moral sense of the poet's words,

"Lenior et melior fis accedente senectà."

"But what I would chiefly say, on the subject, is this, "That, whether with force, or without it, I would only wish your future writings to be an amusement to you, and not a labour; and this I think is the proper use to be made of your observation, if it be ever so well founded."

In short, I continued to express myself in this way to him and his family with so little reserve, that he saw my intention was to draw him off, by degrees, from writing at all; which he takes notice of in a letter of the next year, June 2, 1771, though with some little chagrin, as was but too natural, at this plain dealing.

"I never believed I should feel so tenderly for —— as "I now do. A suffering friend's good qualities, in such a "condition, separate themselves, and rise superior to his failings, which we are insensibly disposed to surget. If this be the case of common acquaintance, in certain seasons, what must be our constant sentiments of a real friend, at all seasons; who loses no occasion of expressing every mode of tenderness towards those he loves! I fell into this train of thinking by what my wife told me, with much pleasure, a little before I lest London. She said that Dr. Hurd assured her, that I would write no more. I received this news, which gave her so much satisfaction, with an approving smile. I was charmed with the tenderness of friendship which conveyed, in so inossensive a manner,

"manner, that fatal fecret which Gil Blas was incapable of doing, as he ought, to his patron the Archbishop of Granada,"

I infert these extracts, chiefly in reference to the IXth book of the D. L., which twenty years before would have been finished in a few weeks, and with that slame of genius which irradiates the former books, but which now lay under his hands many years, was written by snatches and with difficulty, and lest incomplete by him at last. An unwelcome part this of the little history I am writing! yet not unuseful, if it may admonish superior writers to place a just considence in themselves, and little ones to treat them with something more respect. Cudworth and Warburton are memorable and instructive instances, to either purpose.

The misfortune, in the case of the latter, was, that although he had digested in his own mind, long ago, the substance of the 1Xth book, and was perpetually meditating upon it, yet he had committed very little of it to paper; his way being to put down in writing only short notes of what he intended to enlarge upon, and to work them up

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<sup>\*</sup> Yet it may be concluded from the subject, which is a general view of God's moral dispensations from Adam to Christ [See Vol. III. p. 505 and 612], that very little is wanting to complete the author's design; only, what he had proposed to say on the apocalyptic prophecies, and which may be supplied from the discourse on Antichrist.

only when he was preparing to fend his copy to the press. This, in his best days, was so easy to him, that, in printing some of his elaborate works, he had not in his hands two sheets together, but sent the copy to his printer as fast as it was composed.

I know indeed that many persons, from the compass and variety of his learning, imagined that he drew the materials of it from a voluminous common-place. The fact was just otherwise. His memory was so tenacious, that he trusted every thing to it: or, if he may be said to have kept a common-place, it was nothing more than a fmall interleaved pocket-almanack, of about three inches fquare; in which he inferted now and then a reference to a curious fact or passage, that he met with in his reading, but chiefly short hints of sentiments and reflections, which occasionally struck him, and might some time or other be put to use. At the end of every year, he tore out of his almanack fuch leaves as contained any of those reflections. and put them together under general heads, that he might' recur to them, on occasion, the more readily. Of these papers, or rather collections of papers, I have many in my hands, relative to the subjects of the three last books of the D. L.; and from these the IXth book, such as he left it, was composed:

Another inconvenience, attending the late composition of this book, was, That he had occasionally delivered, in his

his fermons, and other printed works, some of the leading principles contained in it. Thus, he had, in effect, anticipated a good part of his subject. Nor was this all. Finding the labour of composing troublesome to him, he quoted from himself very freely; and such passages, as had found a place elsewhere, when the purpose of completing the last book was suspended or laid aside, were now inserted in it, without much alteration, in order to carry on the thread and order of his discourse.

From both these causes therefore (his not having reduced to form the materials he had provided for the IXth book, and his having already worked up some part of them) it is easy to see the disadvantage with which he came, in the close of his long life, to the composition of this work. His memory and invention were not what they had been; his facility and variety of expression was not the same; and, what was worst of all, the grace of novelty in the subject was in some measure gone off.

It was therefore matter of deliberation with me, for fome time, whether I should insert the IXth book (though printed, so far as it goes, by himself) entire and in its own form, or only some fragments of it. But, on further consideration, I judged it right to give that work exactly as the author left it: especially, as the subject is highly interesting, and even new, unless where anticipated by himself; the method, clear and exact; and the whole

cast of composition, masterly; his reasonings being carried on, if not with the splendid ease and perspicuity of his best manner, yet with a force and spirit, both in the sentiment and expression, which may well excite our admiration, when the circumstances, under which he wrote, are considered.

In a word, this IXth book of the D. L. under all the disadvantages with which it appears, is the noblest effort that has hitherto been made to give a Rationale of Christianity. How far it may satisfy those who have so long and so loudly called for it, will be now seen: without doubt, no farther, than as it may agree (if, in any respects, it should agree) with their reason. In the mean time, the investigation is made with the best design:

"To justify the ways of God to man;" and, let me add, in a way that entitles it to another fort of regard, than is due to theories, constructed, as they usually are, on fanciful suppositions, and arbitrary assumptions: Since every thing, here, is advanced on the sure grounds of natural and revealed religion: the one, estimated by the purest reason; the other, interpreted with an awful reverence of the written word, and according to the rules of the soundest and soberest criticism.

While the good Bishop was thus exerting his last strength in the cause of religion, he projected a method by which he hoped to render it effectual service after his death. This

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was by the institution of a Lecture on PROPHECY; a subject, which he conceived had not been confidered with the care it ought; and from a thorough discussion of which, he affured himself, much additional force would arise to the proof of the Christian religion. He had himself opened a way to the successful investigation of the general subject, in some principles delivered in the D. L., and in his confutation of Collins's book by means of those principles. But forne particular prophecies had struck his attention, as furnishing the most decisive argument for the truth of Christianity. In the preface to his remarks, part II. printed fo long ago as 1745, he fays—"I have ever "thought, the prophecies relating to Antichrift, inter-" spersed up and down the New and Old Testament, the " most convincing proof of the truth of the Christian re-"ligion, that any moral matter is capable of receiving." And again-" This question (namely, what individual " power is meant in the prophecies) is one, on the right "determination of which alone, I am fully perfuaded, one " might rest the whole truth of the Christian religion "."

Under this persuasion then in 1768 he gave £. 500. in trust to Lord Mansfield, Sir Eardley Wilmot, and Mr. Charles Yorke, for the purpose of founding a Lecture at Lincoln's Inn, in the form of a sermon, 'To prove the truth of revealed religion in general, and of the Christian in particular, from the completion of the prophecies in the Old \* See Vol. VI. p. 383.

and New Testament, which relate to the Christian Church, especially to the apostacy of Papal Rome.'

The subject is infinitely curious, and of vast extent: for those who have taken it to be too much narrowed by specifying the prophecies concerning Antichrift, feem not to have understood the compass of the controversy, nor the terms of the institution itself. The truth is, there is more danger that Lecturers will be wanting to the institution, than that it will not afford matter and scope enough for He was anxious to leave this important their discussion. trust in the best hands. And while it continues in such as have had the management of it, there is no doubt that the best supply, which the age furnishes, will be provided for this lecture. And, if I had not myself preached the first course of these sermons, I should add that, hitherto, their choice of lecturers has afforded no fignal cause of complaint.

It was afterwards in the Bishop's contemplation to double the original endowment. But he was diverted from this design (though with some difficulty) by those who represented to him, that the sum given was sufficient to answer his purpose of engaging men of ability to read his lecture if they were influenced by such motives as became them, a regard for their own honour and a zeal for the service of religion; and that more could answer no good purpose, nay might easily be abused to bad ones, if they were not.

The

The last years of the Bishop's life were clouded with missortune, as well as indisposition. He had for some time been so sensible of his declining health, that he read little, and wrote less. But, in the course of the year 1776, the loss of a favourite son and only child \*, who died of a

\* He had been placed, much to his father's fatisfaction, under the care of Dr. Halifax; then an eminent tutor of Trinity Hall at Cambridge, and the king's professor of law in that university; who in 1782 was advanced to the see of Gloucester, and translated in 1789 to that of St. Asaph. He died March 4, 1790.—His distinguished worth and ability deservedly raised him to the high rank he held in the church.—But his character is given more at large in the following elegant inscription, composed by his father-in-law, the Reverend Dr. William Cooke, dean of Ely, and provost of King's College, Cambridge, and engraved on his monument in the church of Warsop in Nottinghamshire; of which church the hishop was rector, and in which, for the reason assigned in the two first lines of the inscription, he was buried.

"Hic juxta filiolum dulcissimum acerbo olim fato
Præreptum paternas exuvias deponi voluit vir
reverendissimus Samuel Halifax LL. D. & S. T. P.
Ex hac vicinia oriundus primisque literis imbutus in
academia protenus Cantabrigiensi sloruit juris civilis
prælector publicus & professor regius in curia prærogativa
Cantuariensi facultatum registrarius in hac ecclesia
rector in ecclesia cathedrali Glocestriensi primò deinde
Asaphensi episcopus quæ per omnia officia ingenio claruit
& eruditione & industria singulari summa in ecclesiam
Anglicanam side concionum vi ac suavitate slexanima
Scriptorum nitore & elegantia vità insuper id quod primarium sibi semper

Natus est apud Manssield Jan 18, 1733, calculo oppressus properata morte obiit Martii 4, 1790, ætatis eheu 57. Catharina conjux cum silio unica & sex siliabus superstes relicta in aliquod desiderii sui solamen morens P."

confumption in his 18th year, when every hope was springing up in the breast of a fond parent, to make amends, as it were, for his want of actual enjoyment—this sudden affliction, I fay, oppressed him to that degree, as to put an end to his literary labours, and even amusements, at once. From that disastrous moment, he lived on indeed for two or three years; but, when he had fettled his affairs, as was proper, upon this great change in his family, he took no concern in the ordinary occurrences of life, and grew to indifferent to every thing, that even his books and writings feemed, thenceforth, to be utterly difregarded by him. Not that his memory and faculties, though very much impaired, were ever wholly disabled. I faw him so late as October, 1778, when I went into his diocese to confirm for him. On our first meeting, before his family, he expressed his concern that I should take that journey, and put myself to so much trouble, on his account. And afterwards, he took occasion to say some pertinent and obliging things, which shewed, not only his usual friendliness of temper, but the command he had of his attention. Nor was this all. The evening, before L left him, he defired the family to withdraw, and then entered into a confidential discourse with me on some private affairs which he had much at heart, with as much pertinence and good fense, as he could have done in any former part of his life. Such was the power he had over. his mind, when rouzed to exert himself by some interesting occasion! But this was an effort, which could not be suftained very long. In less than half an hour, the family returned, and he relapsed into his usual forgetfulness and inattention.

In this melancholy state he languished till the summer following, when he expired at the Palace in Gloucester, on the 7th of June, 1779, and was buried in his cathedral, at no great distance from the West door, and near to the grave of one of his predecessor's, Bishop Benson.

A neat mural monument has been put up there to his memory, with the following inscription:

"TO THE MEMORY

of WILLIAM WARBURTON, D. D.

FOR MORE THAN 19 YEARS BISHOP OF THIS SEE:

A PRELATE

OF THE MOST SUBLIME GENIUS, AND EXQUISITE LEARNING:
BOTH WHICH TALENTS

HE EMPLOYED, THROUGH A LONG LIFE,

IN THE SUPPORT

of what he firmly believed, the Christian Religion,

AND

•OF WHAT HE ESTEEMED THE BEST ESTABLISHMENT OF 1T,
THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND."

## IV.

It only remains for me to draw together the feveral parts of the Bishop's character, and to present them to the reader in one view; which I shall now attempt, with the affection of a friend, no doubt, yet on the whole, with as much severity as I ought. For I remember the wise and humane reflexion of the great biographer, who in his life of Cimon expresseth himself to this purpose: "When a "painter undertakes to give us the portrait of a beautiful person, if there be any smaller blemishes in his subject, "we do not expect him to omit them altogether; for then the picture would be unlike: nor to express them with too much care; for then it becomes disgusting.

"In like manner, it being difficult, or rather impossible, to find a faultless character, the writer of a great man's life will lay himself out in delineating his good qualities, and not dwell with pleasure, or an anxious diligence, on his foibles; out of a respectful tenderness to human nature, which unhappily is not capable of attaining absorblute persection \*."

And with this little apology for myself, I proceed to give the outline of my friend's character.

<sup>\*</sup> Plutarch. Cimon: fub init.

HE possessed those virtues, which are so important in society, Truth, Probity, and Honour, in the highest degree; with a frankness of temper, very uncommon; and a friendliness to those he loved and esteemed, which knew no bounds: not suspicious or captious, in the least; quick, indeed, in his resentment of real manifest injuries; but then again (as is natural to such tempers) of the utmost placability.

He had an ardent love of Virtue, and the most sincere zeal for Religion; and that, the freest from all bigotry and all fanaticism, that I have ever known. He venerated the civil constitution of his country, and was warmly attached to the Church of England. Yet he was no partyman, and was the sincerest advocate for toleration. It was not his manner to court the good opinion of our Dissenters. But he had nothing of prejudice or ill-will towards them: he conversed familiarly with such of them as came in his way; and had even a friendship with some of their more noted ministers \*; who did not then glory in Socinian impieties, or indulge themselves in rancorous invectives against the Established Church.

I know, indeed, that he spoke his sense of men and things, occasionally, with force, which in the language of some persons will be termed bigotry. And the truth is,

<sup>\*</sup> See a Collection of Letters to and from Dr. Doddridge of Northampton; published by T. Stedman, M. A. vicar of St. Chad's, Shrewsbury, 1790.

he never indulged his candour fo far as to treat all opinions and all characters alike. On the contrary, he held prophane and licentious writers to be fit objects of public reproof: and though civil penalties should not be applied to the coercion of mistaken, or even, to a certain degree, of hurtful opinions, yet literary chastisement, he thought, should; an equal acceptance of all being the ready way to introduce Scepticism, under the specious name of Liberality, or rather irreligion itself, under the mask of charity. And if this zeal may be abused, as without doubt every thing may, at most, he had only to answer for that abuse: The use itself being surely unquestionable, if there be truth or meaning in the Apostle's aphorism, "That it is " always good to be zealoufly affected in a good matter." But the reader, if he thinks fit, may fee his own vindication of himself in the Apology for his View of Lord Boling. broke's Philosophy.

Indeed his conduct had been always uniform, in this respect. Even in the year 1738, when the first volume of the D. L. was published, he makes a full and frank declaration of his character. For, in his Dedication to the Free-Thinkers, speaking of the advantage he should have, in that address, of not being called upon to disgrace himself, or them, by a style of adulation, he goes on thus—" Not but I must own you have been managed, even by fome of our order, with very singular complaisance." Whether

"Whether it was that they affected the fame of moderation, or had a higher ambition for the honour of your good word, I know not; but I, who neither love your cause, nor fear the abilities that support it, while I preserve for your persons that justice and charity which my profession teaches to be due to all, can never be brought to think otherwise of your character, than as the despisers of the Master, whom I serve, and as the implacable enemies of that order, to which I have the honour to belong. And as such, I should be tempted to glory in your censures; but would certainly refuse your commendations."

Such were his early, as well as late notions, of candour. They who affect to push them still farther, may do well to reflect, whether they be their own dupes, or the dupes of others: I mean, whether they have indeed any principle themselves; or can be content to serve the views of those, whose interest it is, that men of principle speak and act, as if they had not any.

His love of letters was extreme, and his disposition to countenance all those in whom he perceived any kind or degree of literary merit, the most prompt and generous; as appeared by his incessant recommendation of them to his great friends, when his own scanty patronage (as he would oft and vehemently complain) denied him the means of rendering them any service himself.

If we consider him as a WRITER, and a DIVINE, it is not easy to find terms that will do justice to his merit.

His reading was various and extensive; and his discernment exquisite. He saw and seized what was just and useful in every science which he cultivated, and in every book he read. The lumber and the resuse he shook off, and lest to others. Perhaps, no learned writer ever dealt less in ordinary quotation. Even the more familiar passages, unless when cited by him as direct authoritics, take an air and turn in his application of them, which makes them in a manner new. The same observation may be extended to his reasonings; which are either purely his own, or appear to be so, by his management of them. So that it seems a natural question which one \* of his friends put to him, on the receipt of a volume of his fermons—bow do you manage always to say something new upon old subjects, and always in an original manner?

To fay all in a word, he possessed, in an eminent degree, those two qualities of a great writer, sapere et fari; I mean, superior sense, and the power of doing justice to it by a sound and manly eloquence. It was an ignorant cavil, that charged him with a want of taste. The objection arose from the originality of his manner; but he

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<sup>\*</sup> Mr. C. Yorke, in one of his letters, Feb. 2, 1767.

wrote, when he thought fit, with the greatest purity and even elegance, notwithstanding his strength and energy, which frequently exclude those qualities.

The character of his style, is freedom and force united. Nobody understood the philosophy of grammar better: yet in the construction of his terms he was not nice, rather he was somewhat negligent. But this negligence has no ill effect in works of reasoning, and of length; where the writer's mind is supposed intent on the matter, and where a certain degree of irregularity gives the appearance of ease and spirit.

In his use of the terms themselves, especially of what are called mixt modes, and in the nice adjustment of the predicate to the subject (in which the accuracy of style chiefly consists) he was of all writers the most scrupulously exact. It was by this secret in his expression (so far as it depended on art and design) that he is never stiff or languid in his style, but every where free and nervous. It never flattens upon you, not being over-laboured in the phrase, or too general in the terms. There is the appearance of freedom, with the utmost energy and precision.

For the rest, the higher excellences of his style were owing to the strength of his imagination, and a clear conception of his subject; in other words, to his sublime genius.

Thus his style was properly his own, and what we call, original. Yet he did not disdain to draw what assistance he

might from the best critics; among whom, Quinctilian was his favourite.

By this union of art and nature, he succeeded, of course, in all forts of composition. But in one, especially, the Controversial, he was so much superior to himself, that barely to say he excelled in it, would be a poor and scanty praise.

From his first entrance on theological studies, he had applied himself with care to the reading of our best writers in controversy, such as Hooker, Chillingworth, and Locke; of whom he was so fond, that he had their works bound up in small detached pieces, for the convenience of carrying them with him in his hand or pocket, when he travelled, or walked abroad by himself. Of these, I have several in my possession, which appear to have been much used. It is no wonder, he should have this taste; for, besides that controversy was then in vogue, he distained to oppose the enemies of religion in any other way, than that of logical consutation; and against those, to use his own words in a letter to me, be bad denounced eternal war, like Hannibal against Rome, at the altar.

Thus disciplined, he came with advantage to the use of his arms, when he found himself obliged, as he soon was, to take them up. Use and habit did the rest. So that he became consummate in this mode of writing, and at the same time original. For to the authority of Hooker, the acuteness of Chillingworth, and the perspicuity of Locke, he added more than all their learning; together with a force of style, and poignancy of wit, of which we had hitherto seen no example in theological controversy.

With these talents and qualifications, he was the terror of the infidel world, while he lived, and will be their disgrace to suture ages. His sublime reason, aided by his irresistible wit, drove them from their old fastnesses of logick and philosophy, and has forced them to take shelter in the thin cover of history and romance; whence we now see them shoot their arrows, dipt in irony and badinage; to the annoyance indeed of some witless passengers; but to the wary and well-appointed, who take a fancy to ramble into those paths, perfectly harmless and insignificant.

But, when I mentioned his making war on our free-thinking philosophers, let me be understood to mean, not the minute, and plebeian, but the more considerable, and, as one may say, sizeable men of that party; such as pretended to erudition; and reasoned at least, though weakly or perversely. For, as to those insect-blasphemers, of whatever condition, which the fashion, rather than the philosophy of the age has generated, and sent forth in swarms over a great part of modern Europe, he regarded them but as the summer slies, which teize a little by their murmurings (for stings, he would say, they have none) and are easily brushed away by any hand, or vanish of themselves.

Next

Next to infidels professed, there was no set of writers he treated with less ceremony, than the Socinian; in whom he saw an immoderate presumption, and suspected not a little ill faith. For, professing to believe the divine authority of the Scriptures, they take a licence in explaining them, which could hardly, he thought, consist with that belief. To these free interpreters of the word, he was ready to say, as St. Austin did to their precursors, the Manichæans—" Tell us plainly, that ye do not at all believe the Gospel of Christ: for ye who believe what ye will in the Gospel, and disbelieve what ye will, assuredly believe not the Gospel itself, but yourselves only \*."

It is true, he himself would reason on revealed truths farther than to some may seem necessary; but he never reasoned against them. It was his principle, and his practice, to follow the Apostolic rule of casting down all imaginations, that exalt themselves against the knowledge of God+:" which, when clearly revealed, he held it an extreme impiety in any Christian, not only to question directly, but to elude by any forced interpretation. In short, he regarded Socinianism (the idol of our self-admiring age) as a sort of insidelity in disguise, and as such he gave it no quarter.

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Apertè dicite non vos credere Christi Evangelio: nam qui in Evan"gelio quod vultis creditis, quod vultis non creditis, vobis potius quam
"Evangelio creditis." Contr. Faust. L. 17. c. 3.

<sup>+ 2</sup> Cor. x. 5.

Other religionists he would confute, as occasion offered, with his usual vivacity: but he made allowance for their prejudices, and, when no malevolence intervened, treated their persons with respect. But enough, you say, of his controversial merits: let us hear something of his defects.

"He was arrogant, and impatient of contradiction."—
It is true, he knew his own strength, and consided enough in it. But then, as that quality made him incapable of envying his opponents, it should have made him careless of being censured by them. Still, it must be owned, that he had the common infirmity of being better satisfied with such as adopted his opinions, than with those who rejected them. I say the common infirmity: for, I doubt, it adheres to our very nature, and that we shall in vain seek for a man dispassionate enough to be indifferent to contradiction; especially, when direct, and public; and urged, too, with some degree of eagerness, or rather sharpness, which is scarcely separable from controversy.

"But he was violent in his refentments, and excessively fevere in his expression of them."—As to this charge, hear, first, his own apology for himself.—"The paper I fend you , is the introductory note to —. I need not explain it to you. You will understand every word. What I want to know is whether some parts of it be not too severe. Whatever there is of this kind, I shall

<sup>\*</sup> In a Letter to me, Jan. 18, 1757.

<sup>&</sup>quot; gladly

"gladly strike out. For though I have had provocation enough, I can assure you, I have no resentments. I perhaps may not be thought the best judge of my own temper in this matter, and reasonably. But why I say I have so little resentment, I collect from hence, that there is not one word in this volume against them [his adversaries], which I could not with the greatest indifference strike out, either with reason or without. I do not expect the world should do me this justice, because they are to judge by appearances; and appearances are against me; for there are caustic strokes enough against the ignorance and ill faith of my adversaries. But, if this be resentment, it is the resentment I should shew in the case of any other honest man."

His refentment then was impartial: and that it was so he shewed in his vindication of Mr. Pope, and in other instances. But I take upon me to go farther, and to affert, that the severity objected to him, was the effect of his genius, and of no vindictive spirit. For the difference between him, and ordinary writers, who seem to be at their case in disputing, whether on religion or any other subject, is merely this—He selt strongly and wrote forcibly: They are incapable of doing either. This is the simple truth, if it may be told; and hence it is, that the same complaint has been made of every great genius in controversy, from Jerom down to our author.

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Not but another consideration may be worth attending to. The end of controversy is either to convince the perfon you dispute with, or simply to consute his opinions. When the former is the object, without doubt the softest words are the best. But, the other is best done by vigorous expression; because it shews the disputant to be in earnest, and sets the error, contended against, in the strongest light; the likeliest means, to prevent others from being insected with it: And such was the Bishop's view in most of the controversies, in which he engaged. The same observation may be extended to what has been called his dogmatic manner of writing; which is only the firm tone of one who believes what he says, and is indeed very different from the careless unconcerned air of the Sceptick.

But, lastly, I must observe, that the charges of impatience, and severity, in the sense intended by those that urge them, are not true. When no unfriendliness appeared in those who differed from him, he heard their reasons as patiently, consuted them as calmly, or gave way to them as readily, as other men. Which I may the rather affirm, having had the experience of it on many occasions. Our sentiments, no doubt, agreed in the main: there could not, otherwise, have been so entire a friendship between us, as there was. But I never took greater liberties with any man, than with him, nor with less offence; and that, in matters of no small delicacy;

as the reader will fee from the following example, among many others which I could easily give him.

Voltaire had spent a great part of his miserable life in railing against the Jewish law and its Divine Author. His complete ignorance of the subject disposed men of learning, very generally, to treat his censures with neglect. But the Bishop of Gloucester, observing the impression they made on a licentious publick, thought it might be of use to shew this fashionable blasphemer in his true light; to strip his sophistical reasonings of the little plausibility they had; and, for the rest, to turn his favourite weapon of ridicule against him.

With this view, he had been at the pains to plan a work of some length, in three Distrations, which would take in the whole of that subject, and give him occasion to expose, with much force, Voltaire's libertine glosses upon it. When he had sketched out the contents of this discourse, he sent it to me, and desired to know what I thought of it, and whether he should proceed in the design, or no. I told him very frankly, "That, although I thought his plan an excellent one, and could trust him with the execution of it, yet, upon the whole, I wished him to prosecute his design no farther. I said, there was no end of confuting every shallow, though sashionable scribbler against religion; that he had done enough already in exposing so many others of that samily, and, very lately,

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the noble writer that was at the head of it in England, to the just scorn of thinking men; that to go on in this agonistic course, was not only needless, but would bring a storm of envy upon him from all quarters, and that even his friends would, many of them, consider him as too fond of controversy, and as indulging himself too freely in the talent he had for it.—I added other considerations, and particularly this, That I thought it beneath him to commit himself with a person so little acquainted, as Voltaire confessedly was, with the matter in question; and that for bim to answer such a writer in form, would be like breaking a buttersty upon a wheel, according to his friend Pope's ingenious illustration of such atchievements.

In conclusion, I pressed him earnestly to leave this man of merriment to his own serious reslections, if he ever had any; and to reserve his force for some better occasion, than that of repelling the slight cavils of ignorant and ill-informed men."

This free remonstrance was not ill taken. He answered me without hesitation, and in one word—"In the matter of Voltaire, your advice will have its usual weight with me."—The plan was accordingly laid aside, and forgotten.

After such an example of facility in taking advice, the Bishop of Gloucester will not be thought that impracticable man, he has been sometimes represented to be. Many perhaps perhaps will think, with more reason, that his easiness went too far in this instance; for that his Three Dissertations on the Jewish law and history would have been highly entertaining, at least; and perhaps as useful in representing the petulance of the French poet, as the Four Letters had been in dismounting the arrogance of the English philosopher. And upon these grounds, I might indeed have repented me of the free advice I gave him, but for the pleasure I have since had in seeing the same design undertaken, and executed with great elegance and ability, by another hand \*.

But perhaps I have misemployed my pains in setting the controversial character of my friend in a just light. There are those, I know, who will regard this praise, whatever it be, as injurious to the learned prelate, rather than honourable to him; who will be ready to tell us that controversial janglings are out of date; that they never did any good, and are now at length fallen into general and just contempt.

To these wise men I should have much to say, if I could find means to do it without disgracing myself, and disgusting them, by an air of controversy. And would to God that religious controversy were now of no use in this manly age of the world! I should then be for laying it aside with other childish things. But is this the sact? and when all

<sup>\*</sup> See Lettres de quelques Juifs, &c. in 3 tom. 12mo. Par. 1776. quarters,

quarters, besides, resound with controversy, is there no demand for it in the schools of religion? After all, the reader sees what is aimed at by this affected contempt of theological altercation. A hint, in passing, is more than enough on a subject, which the Bishop himself has treated at some length, and with his usual force \*.

I apprehend therefore no discredit to my friend or myfelf, in having dwelt fo long on the virtues of the Controversial writer. They were eminently conspicuous in him; and exerted for a just purpose, that of confuting error, and repressing calumny. Not that I am concerned to deny all mixture of frailty in my friend's exercise of his polemic talents. It will be found in our best performance of the And it is credible enough, that the abunbest things. dance of his wit, the vivacity of his temperament, and the petulance of his adversaries, may have sharpened his style too much in some instances. Yet, on the whole, he might apologize for himself, as Erasmus has done in a fine letter to his friend Sadolet- Some of my opponents, fays he, " because they deserved no better of me, I have EXPOSED, " perbaps, rather than confuted: yet with more temper, as I "think, myself, than they attacked me. Although I am sen-" fible, that passion may have biassed my judgement. For I " must confess that I am easily warmed by ill usage; but so,

<sup>\*</sup> See Volume IV. p. 707.

" as not to retain the refentment of it long, and to forget injuries as soon as any man \*."

As a DIVINE, properly so called, he filled and adorned that character with the highest ability.

Strength of reason, exquisite learning, a critical know-ledge of antiquity, an enlarged view of the scheme of Revelation, a wonderful fagacity in discovering the sense of Scripture, and in opening the probable grounds of its clearly revealed doctrines, with the profoundest submission of his understanding to them, whether those grounds of reason were apparent to him or not—These rare and admirable qualifications shone out in him with greater lustre, than in any other ornament of our church, Stillingsleet, and Barrow, and Taylor himself not excepted. To which I must add that first and noblest quality, of all, A perfect honesty of mind, and sincere love of truth, which governed his pen in all his religious inquiries †.

After

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Quossdam, quia sic merebantur, IRRISI verius quam consutavi, "nusquam non temperatior his à quibus lacessebar, ut mea quidem sert opinio; nam sieri et potest et solet, ut meo judicio imponat assectus; "atque is sum sateor, qui possem lacessitus incandescere, sed nec iræ per-"tinacis, et injuriarum obliviosus, ut si quis alius." Ep. MXCIV. Ed. Cler. L. B. 1703.

<sup>+</sup> Confidering him in this view, I mean as a CONSUMMATE DIVINE, one cannot but lament the fate of a work he had projected, but never R 4 executed,

After mentioning to me, in one of his letters\*, some interesting meditations, he was then engaged in, he stops short,

executed, at least in the manner intended by him, On theological studies, for the use of young people: a plan of which he had digested in his ownmind, and communicated to me, by letter, so early as the year 1750.

## The principal heads were,

- 1. The right state and disposition of mind to make proper improvements—in this were to be considered the natures of scepticism, dogmaticalness, enthusiasm, superstition, &c.
- s. The previous studies of morality and natural religion from their first principles and foundations; and of antiquity, critical, historical, and philosophical.
- 3. The study of the Scriptures.
- 4. Fathers and modern Divines.
- 5. Ecclesiastical history.
- 6. Sermonizing, or the art of preaching.

This work he referved for the amusement of his declining years. But, as what is deferred so long, is rarely executed at all, and never so well as at an earlier season, so this noble design, which required the exertion of his best faculties in their full vigour, was not wholly neglected

\* Jan. 12, 1757.

short, and asks—"But what is man! A fit of the spleen, a fit of illness, and lastly death, may wipe out all these glorious visions, with which my brain at present is painted over: as Law said, it once was with hieroglyphics. But I hope the best; because I only aim at the honour of God and good of men. When I say this I need not perhaps add (as I do with the utmost seriousness) that I fall never wittingly advance one falsebood, nor conceal or disguise one truth."

So that those, if any such there were, who thought he wrote for a party, with the views of interest, for the sake

glected indeed, but flightly attempted by him, a few years before his death: as I find from a brief sketch of it among his papers, which appears to have been drawn up hastily for the use of a friend, and was afterwards made to serve by way of charge to his clergy.

Such as it is, I have judged it worth preserving. The reader will be pleased to see the thoughts of so great a man on this subject; and will, without doubt, make the proper allowances for their being laid before him in this impersect state; without the detail, which was intended, and without those embellishments of style and composition, which, in his best time, he could so easily have bestowed upon them.

This discourse, under the name of Directions for the Study of Theology, will be found in volume V. page 601. of his Works.

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of reputation, or, in short, from any other cause than conviction, and the purest zeal for the advancement of truth, knew nothing of his character, and did him great wrong.

But to take him out of his study, and to consider him in the common walks of life.

He was of a chearful temper; yet subject, at times, to fits of absence, and, if we may believe himself, even of melancholy. For so he paints his own complexional habit in two remarkable letters, addressed to a friend, and lately made public \*.

In one of these, dated Feb. 14, 1742-3, he writes thus:

"We have all something to make us think less complasecently of the world. Religion will do great things. It
will always make the bitter waters of Marah wholesome
and palatable. But we must not think it will usually
turn water to wine, because it once did so. Nor is it sit
sit should, unless this were our place of rest, where we
were to expect the Bridegroom. I do the best I can, and
should, I think, do the same, if I were a mere Pagan,
sto make life passable. To be always lamenting the
smiseries, or always seeking after the pleasures of it,
sequally takes us off from the work of our salvation. And
though I be extremely cautious what sect I follow in
stelligion, yet any in philosophy will serve my turn, and

<sup>\*</sup> In the Collection before mentioned, p. 77.

<sup>&</sup>quot; honest

"honest Sancho Panca's is as good as any; who on his " return from an important commission, when asked by "his master, whether they should mark the day with a "black or a white stone; replied, 'Faith, Sir, if you will " be ruled by me, with neither, but with good brown " ochre.' What this philosopher thought of his commis-" fion, I think of human life in general, good brown ochre " is the complexion of it."

The other letter, I hinted at, is dated Feb. 2, 1740, and is of a still darker cast. For, speaking of what had made him delay fo long the fecond volume of his D. L., he proceeds in the following manner-" I would not have "you think that natural indolence alone makes me thus " play the fool. Distractions of various kinds, inseparable " from human life, joined with a naturally melancholy babit, " contribute greatly to increase my indolence, and force "me often to feek in letters, nothing but mere amuse-"ment. This makes my reading wild and defultory; and "I feek refuge from the uneafiness of thought from any "book, let it be what it will, that can engage my atten-"tion. There is no one whose good opinion I more "value than yours. And the marks you give me of it " make me fo vain, that I was refolved to humble myfelf " in making you this confession. By my manner of wri-"ting upon subjects, you would naturally imagine they " afford me pleasure, and attach me thoroughly. " affire

"affure you, No. I have amused myself much in human learning, to wear away the tedious hours inseparable from a melancholy habit. But no earthly thing gives me pleasure, but the ties of natural relation, and the friend- ship of good men. And for all views of happiness, I have no notion of such a thing, but in the prospects which revealed religion affords us."

These letters appear to have been written, the latter of them especially, in a splenetic moment. But what is said of a melancholy babit means no more (for there was no gloom of melancholy in the tenour of his life or conversation) than that, being of an inventive turn, or, in the language of his friend Bishop Hare, having an ingenious working bead\*, the driving of his thoughts sometimes wore his mind too much, and forced him to relieve it by changing the object of his attention. Hence the desultary reading; which, however, stored his memory with images of all forts, and, as I before observed; while it repaired the vigour of his mind, threw a richness and variety of colouring over all his writings.

But to go on with what I proposed to say of his companionable qualities.

In mixed companies he was extremely entertaining; but less guarded than men of the world usually are; and disposed to take to himself a somewhat larger share of the

\* P. 16. † P. 12, 13.

conversation, than very exact breeding is thought to allow. Yet few, I believe, wished him to be more reserved, or less communicative, than he was. So abundant was the information, or entertainment, which his ready wit and extensive knowledge afforded them! In private with his friends, he was natural, eafy, unpretending; at once the most agreeable and most useful companion in the world. You faw to the very bottom of his mind on any subject of discourse; and his various literature, penetrating judgement, and quick recollection, made him fay the livelieft, or the justest things upon it. In short, I was in those moments affected by his conversation, pretty much as Cato was by that of Maximus Fabius, and may fay, as he does in the dialogue on Old Age—" I was so fond of bis discourse, " and listened to it so eagerly, as if I bad foreseen, what in-" deed came to pass, that when I lost him, I should never " again meet with so instructive a companion ."

I spoke of his private friendships. They were with men of learning and genius; chiefly, with clergymen of the Established Church; and those, the most considerable of the time. It would be invidious to give a list of these. I shall only mention, by way of specimen, the learned Archdeacons of Stow and Winchester.

The

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;Ejus sermone ità tum cupidè fruebar, quasi jam divinarem id, quod "evenit, illo extincto, fore, undè discerem, neminem." Cic. de Senectute, C. IV.

The former of these, Mr. Towne, was of his early acquaintance, when he lived in Lincolnshire, and much respected by him to his death. He was an ingenious and learned man, and so conversant in the Bishop's writings, that he used to say of him, "He understood them better than himself." He published some defences of the Divine Legation, in which, with a glow of zeal for his friend, he shewed much logical precision and acuteness \*.

The latter, Dr. Balguy, was a person of extraordinary parts, and extensive learning; indeed of universal knowledge; and, what is so precious in a man of letters, of the most exact judgement: as appears from some valuable discourses t, which, having been written occasionally on important subjects, and pub-

- \* The following is, I believe, an exact list of them:
- 1. Critical Inquiry into the Practice and Opinions of the antient Philosophers concerning the Soul, &c. Lond. 1748.
- 2. Exposition of the Orthodox System of Civil Rights, and Church Power; addressed to Dr. Stebbing.
- 3. Argument of the D. L. fairly stated. Lond. 1751.
- 4. Free and Candid Examination of Bishop Sherlock's Sermons, and Discourses on Prophecy. Lond. 1756.
- 5. Differtation on the antient Mysteries. Lond. 1766.
- 6. Remarks on Dr. Lowth's Letter to Bishop Warburton. Lond. 1766.
- † These discourses, with some others, were afterwards collected into one volume in 1785, and presented, with a handsome Dedication, to his Majesty.

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lished separately by him, had raised his reputation so high, that his Majesty, out of his singular love of merit, and without any other recommendation, was pleased in 1781 to make him the offer of the Bishoprick of Gloucester. Dr. Balguy had a just sense of this flattering distinction; but was unhappily prevented by an infirm state of health from accepting it.

With these, and such as these, the Bishop was happy to spend his leisure hours. A general conversation he never affected, or rather took much pains to avoid, as what he justly thought a waste of time in one of his temper, talents, and profession.

But to draw to an end of this long, and, as it may feem to those who knew little of him, too fend a character of my friend.

He had his foibles, no doubt; but fuch as we readily excuse, or overlook, in a great character. With more reserve in his writings and conversation, he had passed through the world with sewer enemies (though no prudence could have kept a genius, like his, from having many); and, with a temper less irritable, he would have secured a more persect enjoyment of himself: But these were the impersections of his nature, or rather the excrescences of his ruling virtues, an uncommon frankness of mind, and sensibility of heart. These qualities appear in all his writings, especially in his private letters;

in which a warm affection for his friends, and concern for their interests, is every where expressed. But his tenderness for his family, and, above all, his filial piety, strikes us with peculiar force.

In a letter to me from Durham, July 12, 1757, he writes thus—"I am now got (through much hot weather "and fatigue) to this place. I hurried from the heat of "London at a time, and under circumstances, when a "true Court Chaplain would never have forgiven himself "the folly of preferring the company of his friends and relations, to attendance on the Minister. But every one to his taste. I had the pleasure of finding you well at "Cambridge; I had the pleasure of finding a sister and a "niece well at Broughton, with whom I spent a few days with much satisfaction. For, you must know, I have a numerous family: perhaps, the more endeared to me, by their sole dependance on me.

"It pleased Providence that two of my sisters should marry unhappily: and that a third, on the point of venturing, should escape the hazard, and so engage my care only for herself.—I reckon this a lucky year: For I have married a niece to a reputable grocer at York, and have got a commission for a nephew in the regiment of artillery. These are pleasures," &c.

What his filial piety was, will be feen from the following extracts.

"I am extremely obliged to you" (fays he to a confidential friend \*) "for your remembrance of my dearest, "my incomparable mother, whom I do more than love, whom I adore. No mortal can ever merit more of me, than she has done.—Her decline of life possesses me with anxiety; and I have no support for this but in the thoughts of that last meeting, which excludes all farther chance of separation. But I must break off. You have had long experience what pain it is to me to speak of subjects that affect me most."

And, again, to the same person, on occasion of her death in 1748—"You should have heard from me sooner, but that the afflictive news of my dear mother's death, which met me at this place †, made me incapable of writing, or indeed of doing any thing but grieve for the loss of the most admirable woman that ever was. She was the last of her family; and had in herself alone more virtues than are generally possessed by whole families throughout the whole course of their existence. My extreme sorrow for her death can only give place to my incessant meditation on her virtues and assoration of her memory. This is one of those losses that nothing

<sup>\*</sup> Dr. Taylor. May 22, 1746. + Prior Park.

"can repair, and only time can alleviate. For I shall rever enjoy that happiness as in the days when you and I were conversing together, while she was giving us our coffee. At present, I can think of nothing," &c.

But I grow prolix again (for the reader's fake I will not fay, *tedious*) while I indulge myself in extracting these tender passages from his letters.

To conclude at length, in one word.

How differently soever men might think of him in his life-time, all are, or will be, agreed in their opinions of him, now he is dead. For, as a Divine of his own size, and one after his own heart, said excellently well—"When great prelates are living, their authority is depressed by their personal defaillances, and the contrary interests of their contemporaries; which disband, when they are dead, and leave their credit entire upon the reputation of those excellent books and monuments of learning and piety, which are left behind them \*."

What that *credit* of our great prelate is, this collection of his works will shew; and will, if I mistake not, deliver him down to posterity as the ablest Divine, the greatest Writer, and the first Genius of his age. They are faithfully printed from the last editions of the author, and

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<sup>\*</sup> Bishop Taylor, L. P. p. 210. 8vo. Lond. 1709.

those in many places corrected by his own hand. In one respect only, I have some apology to make to the reader. Several of his friends had observed to him (and he was, himself, convinced of it) that he had filled the margin of the Alliance and Divine Legation with too many notes; and had swelled those volumes too much by large extracts under the name of Pottscripts, or Appendices, from his controversial tracts. The longer NOTES occupy the reader too much, and divert him from the main argument, which, as it lies in the text of the Divine Legation especially, is drawn out to a sufficient length: otherwise, they are infinitely curious and learned, and deferve to be read with great care. They are now, therefore, printed together at the end of each book, and referred to in the text. this disposition, the reader's convenience is consulted, and the dignity of those capital works is preserved. As for fuch of the Postscripts, as are extracted from his controversial works, these I ought, perhaps to have withdrawn: but, as hereafter they may have their use in separate editions of the Alliance and Divine Legation, I have permitted them to keep their place. I did this the rather, because these discourses are not merely repetitions, but have received many corrections and alterations from the author; while the controversial treatises, from which they are taken, were never retouched by him, but left in their original state.

Those

Those controversial pieces themselves could by no means be suppressed, or altered in the least, as they present the liveliest image of the writer's character and genius, and derive a peculiar grace from being seen in that connection of thought, and glow of colouring, which they took, in the heat of composition, from his careless and rapid hand.

Some of his private letters (such as had been printed in his life-time by himself, or others) conclude the last volume; and shew how much he excelled in this fort of composition, for which he was indeed singularly qualified by the characteristic virtues both of his head and heart. The reader will therefore wish for a larger collection of them; and he may, in due time, be gratified with it, out of the Editor's long correspondence with him.

It may be proper to add, that this elegant edition of his works is given at the fole expence of his widow, now Mrs. Stafford Smith of Prior Park: who also erected the monument, before spoken of, to his memory in the church of Gloucester.

I have now, as I found myself able, and in the manner I judged most sit, discharged my duty to this incomparable man: a duty, which he seemed to expect would be paid to him by one or other of his surviving friends, when, in the close of his presace to Mr. Pope's works, he has these affecting words—"And I, when envy and calumny take "the same advantage of my absence (for, while I live, I

"will trust it to my life to confute them) may I find a friend as careful of my honest fame, as I have been of his."—I have, I say, endeavoured to do justice to his memory; but in so doing I have taken, the reader sees, the best method to preserve my own. For, in placing myself so near to him in this edition of his immortal works, I have the fairest, perhaps the only chance of being known to posterity myself. Envy and Prejudice have had their day: And when his name comes, as it will do, into all mouths, it may then be remembered, that the writer of this life was honoured with some share of his esteem; and had the pleasure of living in the most entire and unreserved friendship with him, for near THIRTY YEARS.

Hartlebury-Caftle, Aug. 12, 1794. R. WORCESTER.

## APPENDIX TO THE LIFE.

## LETTER [A] P. 24.

-" I HAVE known this Gentleman about twenty years. I have been greatly and in the most generous manner obliged to him. So I am very capable, and you will readily beliave, very much disposed to apologize for him. Yet for all that, if I did not really believe him to be an honest man, I would not venture to excuse him to you. is more notorious than the great character he had acquired in the faithful and able discharge of a long embassy at Constantinople, both in the public part, and the private one of the merchants affairs. The first reflexion on his character was that unhappy affair of the Charitable-corporation. I read carefully all the reports of the committee concerning it: And as I knew Sir Robert Sutton's temper and character fo well, I was better able than most to judge of the nature of his conduct in it. And I do in my conscience believe that he had no more suspicion of any fraud, carrying on by fome in the direction, than I had. That he was guilty of neglect and negligence, as a Director, is certain: but it was only the natural effect of his temper (where he has no fuspicion) which is exceedingly indolent.

And he suffered sufficiently for it, not only in his censure, but by the loss of near £. 20,000. And at this very juncture he lost a considerable sum of money (through his negligence) by the villainy of a land-steward, who broke and run away. Dr. Arbuthnot knew him well; and I am fully persuaded, though I never heard so, that he had the fame opinion of him in this affair that I have. But parties ran high, and this became a party matter. And the violence of parties no one knows more of than yourself. And his virtue and integrity have been fince fully manifested, Another prejudice against him, with those who did not know him personally, was the character of his brother, the General, as worthless a man, without question, as ever was created. But you will ask, why should a man in his flation be engaged in any affair with fuch dirty people? 'Tis a reasonable question; but you, who know human nature fo well, will think this a fufficient answer. born to no fortune, but advanced to that station in the Levant, by the interest of his cousin Lord Lexington; besides the straitness of his circumstances, the usual and constant business of that embassy gave him, of course, a mercantile turn. He had feen in almost every country, where he had been, focieties of this kind, subsisting profitably to themselves, and beneficially to the public. not to think he came amongst them with a view to his own profit principally, would indeed be abfurd. Yet I am fure with

with a view of an honest profit. For he is very far from He lives up to his fortune, without an avaricious man. being guilty of any vice or luxury. He is an extreme good and faithful husband, and with reason indeed, for it is toone of the finest women in England. He is a tender and indulgent father to very hopeful children; a kind master, and one of the best landlords to his tenants. I speak all this of my own knowledge. He has a good estate in this place. My parishioners are good people. The times (till very lately) for this last fifteen years have been extreme bad for the grafiers; I got of him, for them, two abatements, in their rents, at two several times. I will only beg leave to give you one more instance that relates to myself, and is not equivocal in his character. I chanced to know him, when I was very young, by means of my neighbourhood to Lord Lexington (whom I never knew) where he oft came. And, without any confideration to party or election-interest, he seemed to have entertained an early esteem for me. He had two good livings, on estates he had lately bought: and without the least intimation or folicitation he told me I should have the first that fell. He was as good as his word. But this was not all. As foon as I became possessed of the living, he told me, that (from what he had been informed by my predecessor, who at his death was going to commence a fuit for his just dues) the living was much injured by a low and illegal composition. That U he.

the thought I ought to right myself, and he would join with me against the other freeholders (for his estate is something more than one half of the parish). I replied, that as he paid all the tithes for his tenants, the greatest loss, in my breaking the composition, would fall upon himself, who must pay me half as much more as he then did. he did not regard that; I was his friend, and it was my I answered, that, however, I could not do it yet, for that the world would never conceive it to be done with his .confent, but would fay that I had no fooner got his living, than I had quarrel'd with him. But, when I came to my parish, I found them so good a fort of people, that I had as little an inclination to fall out with them. So (though to my great injury) I have deferred the matter to this day. Though the thing in the opinion of Sir R. Raymond, who gave it on the case, as drawn up by the parishioners themfelves, is clear and indisputable; yet they won't give it up without a law-fuit. In a word, there is nothing I am more convinced of than the innocence of Sir R. S. in the case of the Charitable Corporation, as to any fraud, or connivance at fraud. You, who always follow your judgement, free from prejudice, will do so here. I have discharged my duty of friendship both to you and him."-

# LETTER [B] p. 42.

GOOD MADAM,

Newark, Jan. 26, 1744-5.

I HAD the honour of your obliging letter of the 25th of last August, sent me to Bath, where I then was. After some stay there, where my time was taken up more than I could have wished, I went to London, where I was still less in my own power. I am just now returned home; and the first thing I thought of was to make my acknowledgements for that favour.

I do not wonder that the goodness of your heart, and your love of letters, should make you speak with so much tenderness of poor Mr. Pope's death; for it was a great loss both to the literary and moral world. In answer to your obliging question, what works of Mr. Pope have been published with my commentaries and notes? I am to inform you, they are the Dunciad in quarto, and the Estay on Man and on Criticism, in the same size. Which affords me an opportunity to beg the favour of you to let me know into whose hands in London I can consign a small parcel for you: For I have done myself the honour of ordering these two volumes to be sent to you, as I believed you would with difficulty get them of your booksellers so far North; and I hope you will forgive this liberty.

U. 2. Towards.

Towards the conclusion of your letter, you have fent me one of the politest cartels imaginable. I think, his answer was generally commended, who told the Emperor, when he pressed him, that he never would dispute with a man who had twenty legions at his beck. And do you think I will enter the lists with a lady, whose writings have twenty thousand charms in them? If I confided in myfelf, and aimed at honour, I could not indeed do better: for the case is there, as in the works of the Italian poets; who have, with great decorum, when they introduced female warriors, made the overcoming one of them the highest point of valour and address in their heroes. Besides, to speak out of a figure, we differ in what is the true foundation of morality. I have said all I have to fay on the subject. And though it be hard to guess when a writer so much the mistress of her subject has faid all, yet if I believed what you have faid was all, I might perhaps be in some measure excuseable; as I see you fay fo much more than any writer of your fide the question had done before you.

One thing, and only one, you will give me leave, Madam, to observe: that I am a little surprized at the confequence drawn from my position—" that, as without a God there could be no obligation, therefore the Atheist who believes there is none (and might deduce that truth concerning obligation from the principles of right reason) would have no the upon him."

Hence I concluded, and I thought rightly, that Atheism was highly injurious to fociety. But how any one could conclude from this (for this is the amount of what I said on that subject) that, on my principles (for as to my opinion, I believe no one would question that) an atbais is not accountable in a future state for any enormities be may commit bere, I do not fee. And my reason for saying so is this. It is a principle, I suppose, agreed on, "That " crimes committed upon wrong principles are equally pu-" nishable with those committed against right; for that the " falling into this wrong principle was occasioned by some " punishable fault in the conduct," Now I have not faid one fingle word, throughout the discourse, that tends to invalidate this principle: Confequently all I have faid cannot affect that truth, That an Atheist is accountable. ask your pardon, Madam, for this trouble. It is what I have not given to any other; though feveral have made the fame objection. They deserved nothing at my hands; and you deserve every thing.

You inquire with great civility concerning the third volume of the Divine Legation. Several offices of friend-ship, several offices of domestic piety and duty, weariness with contradiction of sinners both against sense and grammar (for such have been my adversaries) have prevented me doing any thing at the last volume, since the publication of the second. But now being just upon the point

## THE

# DIVINE LEGATION

O F

M O S E S.

I N N I N E B O O K S

VOLUME THE FIRST:

CONTAINING

B O O K S I. and II.

Vol. I. B 2

DEDI-

## D E D I C A T I O N

TO A NEW EDITION OF

BOOKS L. II. III. in 1754.

#### TO THE RIGHT HONOURABLE

# PHILIP EARL OF HARDWICKE, LORD HIGH CHANCELLOR OF GREAT BRITAIN.

MY LORD,

YOUR Lordship having so far approved of the good intentions of my endeavours for above twenty years past, in the cause of Religion, as to confer upon me a distinguishing mark of your favour, I am proud to lay hold of the first public opportunity which I have had, of desiring leave to make my most grateful acknowledgments.

I take the liberty to inscribe to your Lordship a new Edition of a work tending to shew and illustrate, by a new argument, the Divine Legation of Moses; which in our own, as well as former times, the most celebrated Champions of Insidelity have cunningly, for their own purposes, laboured with all their might, to overthrow.

If I have succeeded, or as far as I have succeeded, or may hereafter succeed, in the further profecution of this attempt, I shall strengthen one foundation of Christianity.

As an author, I am not solicitous for the reputation of any literary performance. A work given to the world, every reader has a right to censure. If it has merit, it will go down to posterity: if it has none, the sooner it dies and is forgot the better.

But

### iv DEDICATION to LORD HARDWICKE.

But I am extremely anxious that no good man should mistake the view with which I write; and therefore cannot help feeling, perhaps too sensibly, when it is misrepresented.

So far as any censure can shew that my poor labours are not calculated to promote Letters or Learning, to advance Truth, or, above all, to serve the cause of Religion, which I profess as a Christian and a Member of the Church of England, I own, I have missed my end; and will be the first to join with the censure which condemns them.

In the mean time, the first book of this work, such as it is, is here humbly commended to your Lordship's protection. For to whom does it so properly belong to patronize an argument shewing the UTILITY of Religion to Society, as to that great Magistrate, Legislator, and Statesman, who is best able to recommend and apply the subject, by his being convinced of the TRUTH of Religion; and by his giving the most exemplary proof of his belief, in a steddy regard to it's dictates in his life and actions?

It is this which makes me prefume on your Lordship's protection, not any thing extraordinary in the work itself. It is enough for your Lordship to find in those you favour a real zeal for the interests of Virtue and Religion. The effectual service of those interests depends on so many accidents, respecting both the ability of the Writer and the disposition of the Reader, that your Lordship's humanity and candour, inlarged, and not (as it often happens) diminished, by your great knowledge of mankind, will always dispose you to estimate merit by a better rule than the success.

I am,

My Lord,

With the utmost Gratitude,
Your Lordship's most obliged,
and devoted Servant,

London, Nov. 5, 1754.

W. WARBURTON.

## DEDICATION

TOTHE

### FIRST EDITION OF

B O O K S I. II. III. in 1738.

TO

## THE FREE-THINKERS.

GENTLEMEN,

S the following discourse was written for your use, you have the best right to this address. I could never approve the custom of dedicating books to men, whose professions made them strangers to the subject. A discourse on the Ten Predicaments, to a leader of armies, or a system of casuistry to a minister of state, always appeared to me a high absurdity.

Another advantage I have in this address, is that I shall not lie under any temptations of flattery; which, at this time of day, when every topic of adulation has been exhausted, will be of equal ease and advantage to us both.

Not but I must own you have been managed, even by some of our Order, with very singular complaisance. Whether it was that they affected the same of moderation, or had a higher ambition for the honour of your good word, I know not; but I, who neither love your cause, nor fear the abilities that support it, while I pre-

ferve for your persons that justice and charity which my profession teaches to be due to all, can never be brought to think otherwise of your character, than as the despisers of the Master whom I serve, and as the implacable enemies of that Order, to which I have the honour to belong. And as such, I should be tempted to glory in your censures; but would certainly resulte your commendations.

Indeed, were it my design, in the manner of modern dedicators, to look out for powerful protectors, I do not know where I could sooner find them, than amongst the gentlemen of your denomination: for nothing, I believe, strikes the serious observer with more surprize, in this age of novelties, than that strange propensity to insidelity, so visible in men of almost every condition; amongst whom the advocates of Deism are received with all the applauses due to the inventors of the arts of life, or the deliverers of oppressed and injured nations. The glorious liberty of the Gospel is forgotten amidst our clamours against church-tyranny; and we slight the fruits of the restored Tree of Knowledge, for the sake of gathering a few barren leaves of Free-thinking, misgrafted on the old prolific stock of Deism.

But let me not be mifunderstood; here are no infinuations intended against liberty: for, surely, whatever be the cause of this epidemic folly, it would be unjust to ascribe it to the freedom of the Press, which wise men have ever held one of the most precious branches of national Liberty. What, though it midwifes, as it were, these brain-sick births; yet, at the same time that it facilitates the delivery, it lends a forming hand to the mishapen issue: for, as in natural bodies, become distorted by suffering in the conception, or by too strait imprisonment in the womb, a free unrestrained exposition of the parts may, in time, reduce them nearer to their natural rectitude; so crude and rickety notions, enseebled by restraint, when permitted to be drawn out and examined, may, by the reform of their obliquities, and the correction of their virulency, at length acquire health and proportion.

Nor less friendly is this liberty to the generous advocate of religion: for how could such a one, when in earnest convinced by the evidence of his cause, desire an adversary whom the laws had before disarmed; or value a victory, where the Magistrate must triumph with him? Even I, the meanest in this controversy, should have been ashamed of projecting the desence of the great Jewish Lawgiver, did not I know that the same liberty of thinking was impartially indulged to all. And if my dissenting in the course of this desence from some received opinions need an apology, I desire it may be thought, that I ventured into this track the less unwillingly, to shew, by my not intrenching in authorized speculations, that I put myself upon the same sooting with you, and would claim no privilege that was not in common.

This liberty then may you long possess; may you know how to use; may you gratefully acknowledge! I say this, because one cannot, without indignation, observe, that amidst the full possession of it, you still continue, with the meanest affectation, to fill your prefaces with repeated clamours against the difficulties and discouragements attending the exercise of Free-thinking: and, in a peculiar strain of modesty and reasoning, employ this very liberty to perfuade the world you still want it. In extolling liberty, we can join with you; in the vanity of pretending to have contributed most to its establishment, we can bear with you; but in the low cunning of pretending still to groan under the want of it, we can neither join nor bear with you. There was indeed a time, and that within our own memories, when such complaints were seasonable and even useful; but, happy for you, Gentlemen, you have out-lived it: all the rest is merely Sir Martin \*; it is continuing to fumble on the lute, though the musick has been long over. For it is not a thing to be disguised, that what we hear from you, on this head, is but an aukward, though envenomed imitation of an original work of one, whoever he was, who appears to have been amongst the

greatest, and most successful of your adversaries. It was published at an important juncture, under the title of The difficulties and discouragements which attend the fludy of the Scripture. But with all the merit of this beautiful fatire, it has been its fortune not only to be abused by your bad imitations, but to be censured by those in whose cause it was composed; I mean the friends of religion and liberty. An author of note thus expresses himself: \* " Nor was this the worst: "men were not only discouraged from studying and revering the "Scriptures by-but also by being told that this study was difficult, " fruitless, and dangerous; and a public, an elaborate, an earnest "diffusive from this study, for the very reasons now mentioned, " enforced by two well-known examples, and believed from a per-" fon of great eminence in the church, hath already passed often ee enough through the press, to reach the hands of all the clergy-" men in Great-Britain and Ireland: God in his great mercy for-"give the author +." Seriously it is a sad case! that one wellmeaning man should so widely mistake the end and design of another, as not to see by the turn and cast of the Difficulties and discouragements, that it is a thorough irony, addressed to some hot bigots then in power, to shew them what dismal effects that inquisitional spirit, with which they were possessed, would have on literature in general, at a time when public liberty looked with a very fickly face! Not, I fay, to see this, but to believe, on the contrary, that it was really intended as a public, an elaborate, an earnest dissassive from the study of the Scriptures! But I have so charitable an opinion of the great author, for a great author without doubt he was, as to believe that had he foreseen that the liberty, which animates this fine-turned piece of raillery, would have given fcandal to any good man, he would, for the confolation of fuch, have made any reasonable abatement in the vigour of his wit and argument.

But you, Gentlemen, have a different quarrel with him: you pretend he hath fince written on the other side the question. Now

<sup>\*</sup> Revelation Examined with Candour, in the preface.

<sup>†</sup> The author was the excellent Dr. Hare, late Bishop of Chichester.

though the word of his accusers is not apt to go very far with me, yet, I must own, I could be easily enough brought to believe, that an author of such talents of literature, love of truth, and of his country, as this appears to have been, would as freely expose the extreme of folly at one end, as at the other; without regarding what party he opposed or favoured by it. And it is well known, that, at the time this is pretended to have been done, another interest being become uppermost, strange principles of licence, which tended to subvert all order, and destroy the very essence of a Church, ran now in the popular stream. What then should hinder a writer, who was of no party but that of truth, to oppose this extravagance, as he had done its opposite? And if he pleased neither bigot nor libertine by his uniformity of conduct, it was for his honour.

How public a blessing is such a virtue! which, unawed by that fatal enemy of sense, as the poet calls it, the danger of offending, dares equally oppose itself to the different follies of Party in extremes.

But to return to our subject: The poor thread-bare cant of want of liberty, I should hope then you would be, at length, persuaded to to lay aside; but that I know such cant is amongst your arts of controversy; and that something is to be allowed to a weak cause, and to a reputation that requires managing. We know what to understand by it, when after a successless insult on religion, the reader is intreated to believe that you have a strong reserve: but till the door of liberty be set a little wider, you have not room to display it.

Thus, at the very entrance of your works you teach us what we are to expect. But I must beg your patience, now I am got thus far, to lay before you your principal abuses of that liberty indulged to you for better purposes; or, to give them the softest name I can, in an address of this nature, your ARTS OF CONTROVERSY.

By this I shall at once practise the charity I profess, and justify the opinion I have passed upon you.

Your writers, I speak it, Gentlemen, to your honour, offer your considerations to the world, either under the character of petitioners Vol. 1.

### DEDICATION TO THE FREE-THINKERS.

for oppressed and injured truth; or of teachers to ignorant and erring men. These sure are characters that, if any, require seriousness and gravity to support them. But so great strangers are we to decorum, on our entry on the stage of life, that, for the most part, like Bayes's actor in the Rehearfal, who was at a loss to know whether he was to be ferious or merry, melancholy or in love, we run giddily on, in a mixt and jumbled character; but have most an end, a strong inclination to make a farce of it, and mingle buffoonry with the most serious scenes. Hence, even in religious controversy, while the great cause of eternal happiness is trying; and men and angels, as it were, attending the issue of the conslict, we can find room for a merry story; and receive the advocate of infidelity with much welcome \*, if he comes with but a disposition to make us laugh : though he brings the tidings of death, and scatters round him the poison of our hopes, yet, like the dying affassin +, we can laugh along with the mob, though our own despair and agonies conclude the entertainment.

This quality making a writer so well received, yours have been tempted to dispense with the solemnity of their character; as thinking it of much importance to get the laugh on their side. Hence RIDICULE is become their savourite sigure of speech; and they have composed sad treatises to justify its use, and very merry ones to evince its utility. But to be fair with you, it must be ewned, that this strange disposition towards unseasonable mirth, drives all parties upon being witty where they can, as being conscious of its powerful operation in controversy: RIDICULE having, from the hands of a skilful disputant, the same effect in barbarous minds, with the new invented darts of Marius ‡, which, though so weak as to break in the

<sup>\*</sup> Hence Anthony Urceus, furnamed Codrus, as vain and impious as any Free-thinker alive, being asked the reason (as we are told by Blanchini, the writer of his life) why he mixed so much bustoonry in his works, replied, "That nature had formed mankind in such a manner, as to be most taken with bustoons and story-tellers."

<sup>+</sup> Balthazar Gerard, who murthered the Prince of Orange. See his story.

<sup>1</sup> See Plut. Vit. Mar. tom. II. p. 766, 767. Edit. Cruserii, 8vo.

throw, and pierce no farther than the surface, yet sticking there, they more intangle and incommode the combatant, than those arms, which fly stronger, and strike deeper. However, an abuse it is, and one of the most pernicious too, of the liberty of the Press. For what greater affront to the feverity of reason, the sublimity of truth, and the fanctity of religion, than to subject them to the impure touch of every empty scurrilous Bussion? The politeness of Athens, which you pretend fo much to admire, should be here a lesion to you; which committed all questions of this nature, when they were to be examined, to their gravest and severest court, the Areopagus > whose judges would not suffer the advocates for either party to apply to the passions, so much as by the common rules of the chastest rhetoric \*. But a preposterous love of mirth hath turned you all into Wits, quite down from the sanguine writer of The Independent Whig, to the atrabilaire blasphemer of the miracles +. Though it would be but charity to tell you a plain truth, which Cicero told your illustrious predecessors long ago, when infected with the same distemper: "Ita salem istum, quo caret vestra natio in irridendis 46 nobis, nolitote consumere. Et mehercule, si me audiatis, ne ex-" periamini quidem: non decet; non datum est; non potestis." However, if you will needs be witty, take once more your example. from the fine author of The difficulties and discouragements, and learn from him the difference between Attic irony and elegance of wit, and your intemperate scurrility and illiberal banter.

What a noise, you will say, for a little harmless mirth. Ah, Gentlemen! if that were all, you had my leave to laugh on: I would say with the old comic,

Utinam male qui mihi volunt, sic rideant.

But low and mean as your buffoonry is, it is yet to the level of the people; who are as little folicitous, as capable, of the point of

<sup>\*</sup> Exemplo legis Atticæ, Martiique judicii causæ Patronis denuntiat Præco neque principia dicere, neque miserationem commovere. Apul. Lib. X. Asin. Aur. p. 827. Lugd. 1587. 8vo.

<sup>+</sup> Woolflon.

argument, so they can but catch the point of wit. Amongst such, and to fuch, you write; and it is inconceivable what havoc false wit makes in a foolish head: "The rabble of mankind," as an excellent writer well observes, "being very apt to think, that every thing 46 which is laughed at, with any mixture of wit, is ridiculous in "itself "." Few reflect on what a great wit + has so ingenuously owned, That wit is generally false reasoning. But one, in whom your party most glories, hath written in defence of this abusive way of wit and raillery, on serious subjects. Let us hear him then 1: " Nothing is ridiculous, except what is deformed; nor is any thing 66 proof against raillery, except what is handsome and just; and "therefore it is the hardest thing in the world to deny fair hones-"ty the use of this weapon; which can never bear an edge against "herfelf. One may defy the world to turn bravery or generolity " into ridicule: a man must be soundly ridiculous, who, with all 44 the wit imaginable, would go about to ridicule wisdom, or laugh: et at honesty or good manners." Yes, ridiculous, indeed, to laugh at bravery, generofity, wisdom, honesty, or good manners, as such: and I hardly think, gentlemen, as licentious as some of you are, you will be ever brought to accept of his defiance. And why need you, when it is but shewing them, with overcharged and distorted features, to laugh at your ease? Call them but temerity, prodigality, gravity, simplicity, foppery, and as you have often experienced, the business is done, and the ridicule is compleat. And what fecurity will the noble writer give us, that they shall not be so called? I am persuaded, if you are never to be thought ridiculous till you become so, in the way this gentleman marks out, you may go fafely on in the FREEDOM OF WIT AND HUMOUR, till there be never a virtue left, to laugh out of countenance.

<sup>\*</sup> Mr. Addison's Works, vol. iii. p. 293. Quarto.

<sup>+</sup> Mr. Wycherley to Mr. Pope, Letter XVI.

I Characteristics, vol. L. Essay on the freedom of wit and humour.

But he will fay, he means such clear virtue as hath no equivocal mark about her, which a prevaricator can lay hold on. Admit this: the man of wit will then try to make her ridiculous in her equipage, if he cannot make her so in her person.

However, will he say, it shews at least, that nothing can be done against her, till she be disguised. A mighty consolation this to expiring Virtue, that she cannot be destroyed till you have put her on a sool's coat. As if it were as hard to get that on, as Hercules's off! The comparison holds better in the converse, that when once on, it sticks as close as the envenomed one of old, and often lasts her to her superal.

But if this noble writer means that truth cannot be obscured, however disguised; nor consequently, be made ridiculous, however represented; the two celebrated examples, which follow, seem to shew he was mistaken. Where, in the first, it is seen, that nothing was stronger than the ridicule, nor, at the same time more open and transparent than the disguise; in the latter, nothing more clouded and obscured than the beauty of the truth ridiculed, nor more out of sight than the fallacy in the representation. Which together may teach us, that any kind of disguise will serve the turn; and, that witty men will never be at a loss for one.

Of all the virtues that were so much in this noble writer's heart, and in his writings, there was not one he more revered than love of public liberty; or which he would less suspect should become liable to the impressions of bustoonry. Methinks I hear him say, "One may defy the world to turn the love of public liberty into ridicule: a man must be soundly ridiculous, who, with all the "wit imaginable, would go about it."

However, once on a time, a great Wit set upon this task; he undertook to laugh at this very virtue; and that too, so successfully, that he set the whole nation a laughing with him. What mighty engine, you will ask, was employed, to put in motion so large a body, and for so extraordinary a cause? In truth, a very simple one: a discourse, of which all the wit consists in the title; and that too sculking,

sculking, as you will see, under one unlucky word. Mrs. Bull's vindication of the indispensable duty of CUCKOLDOM, incumbent upon wives, in case of the tyranny, insidelity, or insufficiency of busbands \*. Now had the merry reader been but wife enough to reflect, that reason was the test of ridicule, and not ridicule the test of truth, he would have seen to rectify the proposition, and to state it fairly thus: The indispensable duty of DIVORCE, etc. And then the joke had been over, before the laugh could have begun.

And now let this noble writer tell us, as he does, that fair bonesty can never bear an edge against berself, for that nothing is ridiculous but what is deformed; and a great deal to the same purpose, which his Platonic manners supplied.

But very often the change put upon us is not so easily discernible. Sulpicius tells Cicero, that returning by sea from Asia, and seeing in his course Ægina, Megara, the Piræus, and Corinth in ruins, he fell into this very natural, and humane reflexion: " And shall "we, short-lived creatures as we are, bear with impatience the 44 death of our fellows, when in one single view we behold the car-" cases of so many lately flourishing cities +?" What could be juster or wifer than the piety of this reflexion? And yet it could not escape the ridicule of a celebrated French buffoon. "If neither " (says he 1) the Pyramids of Egypt, nor the Colosseum at Rome. " could

- History of John Bull, part I. chap. xiii.
- + Ex Alia rediens, cum ab Ægina Megaram versus navigarem, cœpi regiones circumcirca prospicere. Post me erat Ægina; ante Megara; dextra Pirzeus; sinistra Corinthus: quæ oppida quodam tempore florentissima suerunt, nune prostrata, & diruta ante oculos jacent. Corpi egomet mecum sic cogitare: Hem! nos homunculi indiguamur, fi quis nostrum interiit, aut occifus est, quorum vita brevior esse debet, cum uno loco tot oppidum cadavera projecta jaceant? Sulpicius M. T. Ciceçoni, lib iv. ep. 5.
  - 1 Superbes monumens de l'orgueil des bumains, Piramides, Tombeaux, dont la vaine structure A temoigné que l'art, par l'adresse des mains Et l'affidu travail, peut vaincre la nature! Vieux palais ruinez, chef d'œuvres des Romains,

<sup>44</sup> could withstand the injury of time; why should I think much <sup>44</sup> that my black waistcoat is out at elbows?" .Here, indeed, the first thing to be observed is the superior resistance of truth.

The buffoon, before he could throw an air of ridicule on this admirable fentiment, was forced to change the image; and in the place of Ægina, Megara, etc. to substitute the *Pyramids* and *Coloffeum*, monuments of human pride, and folly; which, on that account, readily submitted to the rude touch of buffoonry: while those free cities, the noblest effort of human wisdom, the nurseries of arts and commerce, could not easily be set in a ridiculous or an idle light.

But then, how few of his readers were able to detect the change put upon them, when it is very probable the author himself did not see it? who, perplexed at the obstinate resistance of truth, in the various arrangement of his ideas turned the edge of his raillery, before he was aware, against the phantasm, and was the first that fell into his own deceit.

Hence may be seen what the noble writer seems to have spoken at random, at least, not at all to the purpose of the question he was upon, that such indeed is the instead nature of truth, that all the wit in the world can never render it ridiculous, till it be so distorted as to look like error, or so disguised as to appear like folly. A circumstance which, though it greatly recommends the majesty of virtue, yet, as it cannot secure it from insult, doth not at all shew the innocence of riducule; which was the point he had to prove.

Et les derniers efforts de leur architecture,
Collisée, où souvent ces peuples inbumains,
De s'entr' affassiner se donnoient tablature,
Par l'injure des ans vous estes abolis,
Ou du moins la plus part vous estes demolis:
Il n'est point de ciment que le temps ne dissoude,
Si vos marbres si durs ont sentis son pouvoir,
Dois-je trouver mauvais, qu'un meschant pourpoint noir,
Qui m'a duré deux ans, soit percé par le coude?

SCARRON.

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But to see what little good is to be expected in this way of wit and bumour, one may go further; and observe, that even the ridicule of false virtue, which surely deserves no quarter, hath been sometimes attended with very mischievous essects. The Spaniards have lamented, and I believe truly, that Cervantes's just and inimitable ridicule of knight-errantry rooted up, with that folly, a great deal of their real bonour. And it was apparent, that Butler's fine satire on fanaticism contributed not a little, during the licentious times of Charles II. to bring sober piety into disrepute. The reason is evident: there are many lines of resemblance between Truth and its Counterseits: and it is the province of wit only to find out the likenesses in things; and not the talent of the common admirers of it to discover the differences.

But you will fay, perhaps, Let Truth, when thus attacked, defend itself with the same arms; for why, as your master asks, should fair bonesty be denied the use of this weapon? Be it so: come on then, and let us impartially attend the issue. We have, upon record, the most illustrious example of this contention that ever was. The dispute I mean, was between Socrates and Aristophanes. Here truth had all the advantage of place, of weapons, and of judges: Socrates employed his whole life in the cause of virtue: Aristophanes, only a few comic scenes against it. But, heavens! against what virtue! against the purest and brightest portion of it that ever enlightened the gentile world. The wit of the comic writer is well known: that of the philosopher was in a supreme degree, just, delicate, and forceable; and so habitual, that it procured him the title of the Attic buffoon. The place was the politest state in the politest time, Athens in its glory; and the judges the grave senators of Areopagus. For all this, the comic poet triumphed: and with the coarsest kind of bussionry, little fitted, one would think, to take so polite a people, had the art to tarnish all this virtue; and, what was more, to make the owner refemble his direct opposite, that character he was most unlike, that character he most hated, that very character he had employed all his wit to detect,

lay open, and confound; in one word, the sophist. The confequences are well known.

Thus will raillery, in defence of vice and error, be still an overmatch for that employed on the side of truth and virtue. Because fair bonesty uses, though a sharp, yet an untainted weapon; while knavery strikes with one empoisoned, though much duller. The honest man employs his wit as correctly as his logic: whereas the very definition of a knave's raillery is a sophism.

But, indeed, when a licentious buffoonry is once appealed to, and encouraged; its effects have no dependance on the fit choice of its object. All characters fall alike before it. In the diffolute times of Charles II, this weapon, with the same ease, and indeed in the same hands, completed the ruin of the best, and, of the very worst Minister of that age. The historians tell us, that Chancellor Hyde was brought into his master's contempt, by this court-argument. They mimicked his walk and gesture, with a fire-shovel and bellows, for the mace and purse. The same ingenious stroke of humour was repeated on Secretary Bennet, and, by the happy addition of his black patch, with just the same success. Thus, it being the representation, and not the object represented, which strikes the fancy, Vice and Virtue must fall indifferently before it \*.

I hope

\* The author of a late book called Elements of Criticism, speaking of men's various opinions concerning the use of ridicule, proceeds against what is here said, in the solutioning manner—" This dispute has produced a celebrated question, Whether Ridicule be, of or be not, a test of Truth? Which (says he) stated in accurate terms, is, Whether the sense of Ridicule be the proper test for distinguishing ridiculeus objects from those that are in nucl for To austre the question evith precision, I must premise that Ridicule is not a subject of reasoning but of sense or taste." Vol. ii. p. 55. The Critic having thus changed the question, which he calls stating it in accurate terms; and obscured the answer, which he calls, giving it evith precision, he concludes, that Ridicule is not only the best, but the only, test of Truth.

But what is all this to the purpose? Is the Dealer in Ridicule now debarred the liberty of doing what he has so often done, putting his object in a salse light; and, by that means, making Truth appear like Error? As he is not, I inferred, against Lord Vol. I.

D Shaftesbury,

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I hope then, Gentlemen, you will in time be brought to own, that this method is the most unfair in itself, and most pernicious in its consequences: that its natural effect is to missead the judgment, and to make the heart dissolute.

It is a small matter, that the State requires of you, sobriety, decency, and good manners, to qualify you for the noble employment of thinking freely, and at your ease. We have been told this, you will say, before: But, when it came to be explained; By, sober writing was meant, writing in the language of the Magistrate. It may be so; but then, remember, it was not till you yourselves

Shaftesbury, That Ridicule is not a test of Truth. How does our Critic address himself to prove the contrary? Not by shewing, that ridicule is such a test: but that the TASTE of ridicule is the test of what is ridiculeus. Who doubts that? It is the very thing complained of. For when our taste for ridicule gives us a sensible pleasure in a ridiculous representation of any object, we do not stay to examine whether that representation be a true one, but conclude it to be so, from the pleasure it affords us.

His second change of the question is a new substitution, viz. Whether Ridicule be a talent to be used or employed at all? Of which he supposes me to hold the negative. What else is the meaning of these words? "To condemn a talent for ridicule, because it may be converted to wrong purposes, is not a little ridiculous. Could one forbear to smile if a talent for reasoning was condemned, because it also may be persured?" p. 57. He has no reason to smile sure, at his own misrepresentation. I never condemned a talent for ridicule because it may be abused; nor for any other reason. Though others, perhaps, may be disposed to smile at his absurd inference, that we may as well condemn a talent for reasoning. As if reason and ridicule were of equal importance for the conduct of human life.

He may then perhaps alk, "If I do not condemn the use of Ridicule, on what em"ployment I would put it, when I have excluded it from being a test of truth?" Let him
not be uneasy about that. There is no danger that the talent for ridicule should lie idle,
for want of proper business. When reason, the only test of truth I know of, has performed its office, and unmasked bypocrify and formal error, then ridicule, I think, may be
fairly called in, to quicken the operation. Thus, when Dr. S. Clarke had, by superior
reasoning, exposed the wretched sophistry which Mr. Collins had employed to prove the
Soul to be only a quality of Body; Dr. Arbuthnot, who very rarely misemployed his
inimitable talent for ridicule, followed the blow, and gave that foolish and impious opinion up to the contempt and laughter it deserved, in a chapter of the Memoirs of Scriblerus. But to set Ridicule on work before, would be as unsair, indeed as scandalous,
as to bestow the language due to convicted Vice, on a character but barely suspected.

had

had led the way to the abuse of words; and had called calumny. plain dealing; and a scurril licence, urbanity. you, that you are in times when liberty is fo well understood. Had you lived in the boasted days of classic freedom, he amongst you who had escaped best, had been branded with a character, the ancient Sages esteemed most infamous of all, AN ENEMY TO THE RELIGION OF HIS COUNTRY. A very candid and respectable author, speaking of the ancient restraints on free-thinking, says, "These were the maxims, these the principles, which the light of nature 46 fuggested, which reason dictated \*." Nor has this fine writer any cause to be ashamed of his acknowledgment; nor his adversaries any pretence that he must needs esteem it the measure for the present times. For, as a great Ancient well observes, "It is one "thing to speak of truth, and another to hear truth speak of her-" felf +." It was CHRISTIAN TRUTH and CHARITY, the truth and charity you so much insult, which only could take off those restraints; and require no more of you than to be as FREE, but not using your liberty for a cloak of maliciousness t.

I have now done with your buffoonry; which, like chewed bullets, is against the law of arms; and come next to your scurrilities, those stink-pots of your offensive war.

As the CLERGY of the established church have been more particularly watchful in what is yet the common cause of all, the interests of Christianity, and most successful in repelling the insults of its enemies, they have fallen under the heaviest load of your calumny and slander. With unparalleled licence, you have gone on, representing them as debauched, avaricious, proud, vindictive, ambitious, deceitful, irreligious, and incorrigible. "An order of men profligate and abandoned to wickedness, inconsistent with the good of

D 2

<sup>\*</sup> Letter to Dr. Waterland, p. 52, & fag.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Addus vie weet adubeing diger, i adiben inellie igungerier.

<sup>‡ 1</sup> Pet. ii. 16.

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fociety, irreconcileable enemies to reason, and conspirators against the liberty and property of mankind \*."

To fill up your common place of slander, the most inconsistent qualities have been raked together to deform them: qualities that could never stand together but in idea; I mean, in the misshapen ideas of a Free-thinker.

The Order is now represented as most contemptible for their politics; ever in the wrong, and under a fatality of continued blunders, attending them as a curse: But anon, we are told of their deep-laid schemes of a separate interest, so wisely conducted, as to elude the policy of Courts, and bassle all the wisdom of Legislatures.

Now they are a set of superstitious bigots, and siery zealots, prompt to sacrifice the rights of humanity to the interests of Mother-Church: but now again, they are Tartuses without religion; Atbeists and Apostates without faith or law.

This moment, so united in one common confederacy, as to make their own Church-policy the cause of God: But, the next, so divided, that every man's hand is against his brother, tearing and worrying one another, to the great scandal of the charitable author of the Discourse of Free-thinking.

But it is to be hoped, as the evidence is so ill laid together, the accusation may be groundless.

But why do I talk of the Clergy, when there is not one, however otherwise esteemed by, or related to you, that can escape your slander, if he happen to discover the least inclination for that cause, against which you are so virulently bent? Mr. Locke, the honour of this age, and the instructor of the suture, shews us, in the treatment he received from his friend and from his pupil, what a believer is to expect from you. It was enough to provoke their resentment, that he had shewn the reasonableness of Christianity; and had placed all his bopes of happiness in another life,

<sup>.</sup> Rights of the Christian Church, and Christianity as old as the Creation, passim.

The intimacy between him and Mr. Collins is well known. Mr. Collins feemed to idolize Mr. Locke while living; and Mr. Locke was confident Mr. Collins would preserve his memory when dead\*. But he chanced to be mistaken: For no sooner was he gone, than Mr. Collins publickly + insults a notion of his honoured friend concerning the possibility of conceiving how matter might furst be made and begin to be: And goes affectedly out of the way to shew his good will to his memory.

The noble author of the Characteristics had received I part of his education from that great philosopher: And it must be owned, that this Lord had many excellent qualities, both as a man and a writer. He was temperate, chaste, honest, and a lover of his country. In his writings he hath shewn how largely he had imbibed the deep fense, and how naturally he could copy the gracious manner of Plato. How far Mr. Locke contributed to the cultivating these qualities, I will not enquire: But that inveterate rancour which he indulged against Christianity, it is certain, he had not from his master. It was Mr. Locke's love of it that seems principally to have exposed him to his pupil's bitterest insults. One of the most precious remains of the piety of that excellent man, are his last words to Mr. Collins: "May you live long and happy. " &c. all the use to be made of it is, that this world is a scene of " vanity, that soon passes away, and affords no solid satisfaction, but " the consciousness of well doing, and the HOPES OF ANOTHER "LIFE. This is what I can fay by experience, and what you 44 will find when you come to make up your account ||." One would think, that if ever the parting breath of pious men, or the last precepts of dying philosophers, could claim reverence of their furvivors, this noble monument of friendship, and religion, had

<sup>\* &</sup>quot;I know you loved me living, and will preferve my memory now I am dead," says he in his letter to be delivered to Mr. Collins at his death.

<sup>†</sup> Answer to Dr. Clarke's third Desence of his Letter to Mr. Dodwell, at the end.

<sup>1</sup> See Bibl. Choisie, tom. vi. p. 343.

Amongst his Letters published by Desmaizeaux.

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been secure from outrage. Yet hear, in how unworthy, how cruel a manner, his noble disciple apostrophizes him on this occasion: "Philosopher! let me hear concerning life, what the right notion is, and what I am to stand to upon occasion; that I may not, when life seems retiring, or has run is self out to the very dregs, "cry vanity! condemn the world, and at the same time complain that life is short and passing. For why so short inseeded, if not sound sweet? Why do I complain both ways? Is "vanity, mere vanity, a happiness; or can misery pass away too "soon +?" Here the polite author had the noble pleasure of ridiculing the philosopher and the Psalmist † together. But I will leave the strange reflexions, that naturally arise from hence, to the reader; who, I am sure, will be before-hand with me in judging, that Mr. Locke had reason to condemn a world that cast him upons such a friend and pupil ||.

But

" Why

<sup>\*</sup> Mr. Locke was then in his 73<sup>d</sup> year.

<sup>+</sup> Characteristics, vol. i. p. 302. 34 ed.

I Man is like to vanity: His days are as a shadow that passet away. PSAL. Cxliv. 4.

<sup>#</sup> The noble writer did not disdain to take up with those vulgar calumnies which Mr. Locke had again and again confuted. "Some even (fays he, Charaff, vol. i. p. 80. 34 " ed.) of our most admired modern philosophers had fairly told us, that virtue and "vice had, after all, no other law or measure than mere fashion and vogue." The case was this: When Mr. Locks reasoned against innate ideas, he brought it as one argument against them, that virtue and vice, in many places, were not regulated by the nature of things, which they must have been, were there such innate ideas; but by mere fashion and vogue. Is this then fairly told of our admired modern philosopher? But it was crime enough that he laboured to overthrow innate ideas; things that the noble author understood to be the foundation of his moral scafe. (See vol. iii. p. 214.) In vain did Mr. Locke incessantly repeat, that "the divine law is the only true touchstone of moral rec-46 titude." This did but increase his pupil's resentment, who had all his faculties possessed with the MORAL SENSE, as " the only true touchstone of moral rectitude." But the whole Essay itself, one of the noblest, and most original books in the world, could not escape his ridicule: "In reality (fays he, vol. i. p. 299.) how specious a study, how 46 folemn an amusement, is raised from what we call philosophical speculations! The "formation of ideas! their compositions, comparisons, agreement, and disagreement!—

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. But to go on, and consider the nature of this abuse of the Clergy: It is not only an affront to Religion, which, by your practice, you feem to regard as one of the effential branches of literary liberty; but likewise, an insult on civil Society. For while there is such a thing as a Church established by law, its Ministers must needs bear a facred, that is, a public character, even on your own principles \*. To abuse them, therefore, as a body, is insulting the State which protects them. It is highly injurious likewise, because a Bodypolitic cannot preserve the reverence necessary for the support of government, longer than its public officers, whether civil or religious, are treated with the regard due to their respective stations +. And here, your apology, when accused of using holy Writ irreverently, is out of doors. You pretend that the Charge is difingenuous, because it takes for granted the thing in dispute. But in the case before us, it is agreed, that the Ministers of the established worship have a sacred, that is, a public character.

Out of your own mouths likewise, are you condemned. A few instances there are in the first ages of Christianity, of something refembling this misconduct; where the intemperance of private zeal now and then gave the affront to the national religion. But who are they that so severely censure this disorder ‡? that raise such tragic outcries against the factious spirit of primitive Christianity?

<sup>&</sup>quot;Why do I concern myself in speculations about my ideas? What is it to me, for instance, to know what kind of idea I can form of space? Divide a solid body, etc." and
so he goes on in Mr. Locke's own words: And lest the reader should not take the fatire,
a note at the bottom of the page informs us, that "these are the words of the particular
state author cited." But the invidious Remark on this quotation surpasses all credit. Thus
the atomiss, or Epicurean.

<sup>\*</sup> They also that have authority to teach, etc. are public ministers." Leviathan, p. 124. London, 1651. 4to.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Αρχυσι» ή δρειλομένη αίδὺς, καὶ τιμὰ φυλασσομένη, κόσμοι σύζει σύλιος, καὶ λατορίει. Ant. Scrip. apud Stob. de rep. Serm. 41. p. 270. Tiguri, 1559, fol. circa finent.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;The lift of Martyrs confisted, I believe, of those who suffered for breaking the "Peace. The primitive clergy were, under pretence of Religion, a very Lawless Tribe." L. Bolingbroke, vol. iv. p. 434.

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Who, Gentlemen, but Yourselves! The very men who, out of spite and wantonness, daily persist in doing what a misguided devotion, now and then, though rarely, betrayed a martyr to commit \*.

But would you read Christian antiquity with equal minds, you would not want examples of a better conduct. For in general the Apologists for the Christian faith observed a decency and moderation becoming the truth and importance of the cause they had to support. We need only look into Lactantius for the modesty of their conduct in this respect.

This eloquent Apologist, who wrote in an age which would have indulged greater liberties, giving in his divine institutions, the last stroke to expiring paganism; where he consutes the national Religion, spares as much as possible the Priess; but in exposing their Philosophy, is not so tender of their Sophists: For these last having no public character, the State was not concerned to have them managed. Such, I say, was the general behaviour of the first Christians.

Nor can you plead, in your excuse, any other necessity, than that inseparable from a weak cause, of committing this violence. The discovery of truth is so far from being advanced by it, that, on the contrary, it carries all the marks of design to retard the search, when you so industriously draw off the reader's attention from the Cause, by diverting him at the expence of the Advocate.

It is true, that at what time the Clergy so far forgot the nature of their office, and of the cause they were appointed to defend, as to call in the secular arm to support their arguments against wrong opinions, we saw, without much surprise or resentment, You, Gentlemen, in like delusion, that any means were lawful in sup-

<sup>\*</sup> In the LXth canon of the council of Eliberis, held about twenty years before the council of Nice, it is decreed, that they who were flain by the Gentiles for breaking down their idols, should not be received by the church into the number of Martyrs, since neitheir the precepts of the Gospel nor the practice of the Apostles gave any countenance to such licentious behaviour.

port of truth, falling without scruple to affront the Public (then little disposed to give you an equal hearing) by the abuse of a Body, whose private interests the State had indiscreetly espoused. For where was the wonder, when Government had assumed too much, for those who were oppressed by it, to allow it too little? You thought this a fair return; and your candid enemies confessed, that fome indulgence was to be given to the passions of men, raised and enflamed by so unequal a treatment. But now, that the State hath withdrawn its power, and confined the Administration within its proper office; and that this learned Body hath publicly disclaimed its assistance; it will surely be expected, that You, likewise, should return to a better mind, and forfake a practice infolently continued, without any reasonable pretence of fresh provocation.

Your last abuse, Gentlemen, of the liberty of the press, is a certain dissolute habit of mind, regardless both of truth and falshood, which you betray in all your attacks on Revelation. Who that had not heard of your folemn professions of the love of liberty, of truth, of virtue, of your aim at the bonour of God, and good of men, could ever believe you had any thing of this at heart, when they fee that spirit of levity and dissipation which runs through all your writings?

That you may not fay I flander you, I will produce those marks in your works, on which I have formed my accusation of this illiberal temper.

- 1. The first is an unlimited buffoonry; which suffers no test or criterion to your ridicule, to shew us, when you are in jest, and when in earnest.
- 2. An industrious affectation in keeping your true character out of fight; and in constantly assuming some new and sictitious personage.
- 3. To support your chicane, an unnatural mixture of the Sceptic and Dogmatist.

And here, Gentlemen, in illustrating these three circumstances of your guilt, one might detect all your arts of controversy, and easily reveal the whole mystery of modern Free-thinking. But the limits Vol. I

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limits of this address will only permit me in few words to describe the general nature of each; in order to shew, how certain an indication they are of the turn of mind of which I accuse you.

1. The illimited, UNDISTINGUISHABLE IRONY, which affords no infight into the author's meaning, or fo much room as to gues's what he would be at, is our first note. This, which is your favourite figure of speech, your noble Apologist owns to be " a dull " fort of wit which amuses all alike "." Nay, he even ventures to pronounce it "a gross, immoral, and illiberal way of abuse, foreign " to the character of a good writer, a gentleman, or man of worth +." What pity, if he should chance to fall under his own censure! Yet this is certain, he hath fo managed his good bumour, that his admirers may always find a handle either to charge us with credulity, or want of charity, determine as we will of his true and real fentiments. However, the noble writer hath not aggravated this folly, in the character he hath given of it: For, here forgetful of your own precepts, (your common-place topic against public instructors) while you prescribe ridicule to be so managed, as to shew it tends to a serious issue; you practise it so indiscriminately, as to make one believe you were all the time in jest. While you direct it to unmask formal bypocrify, you suffer it to put sober truth out of countenance; and while you claim its aid, to find out what is to be laughed at in every thing, you employ it to bring in every thing to be laughed at.

That a RESTRAINT on free inquiry, will force writers into this vicious manner, we readily allow. Under these circumstances, such a key to ridicule as just writing demands being unsafe; and the only way men have to escape persecution being to cover and intrench themselves in obscurity; it is no wonder that ridicule should degenerate into the busionny which amuses all alike: As in Italy, which gave birth to this degenerate species of writing, it is the only way, in which the poor crampt thinking wretches can discharge a free thought.

<sup>\*</sup> Charact. vol. i, tract ii, part i. § 2.

<sup>†</sup> Vol. iii. miscel. iv. c. 2.

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But in Great Britain, happily for Truth, and You, PHILOSOPHY is at her ease; and you may lead her safely back to Paganism, through all the ancient modes of doubting, objecting, and refuting.

It is difficult, therefore, to assign any other likely cause of this extravagance, than that vicious levity of spirit I have charged upon you. For as Man is formed by nature with an incredible appetite for Truth; so his strongest pleasure, in the enjoyment, arises from the actual communication of it to others. Without this, it would be a cold purchase, would abstract, ideal, solitary Truth; and poorly repay the labour and fatigue of the pursuit. Amongst the Ancients, who, you will allow, had high notions of this social SENSE, it was a faying recorded by Cicero with approbation, " that " even heaven would be no happiness, to him who had not some 66 companion or focial Spirit to share with him in the pleasure of " contemplating the great truths of nature there revealed unto him." " Si quis in cœlum ascendisset, naturamque mundi, et pulchritudi-"nem siderum perspexisset, insuavem illam admirationem ei fore; " quæ jucundissima suisset, si aliquem, cui narraret, habuisset "." Seneca goes yet further: " Nec me ulla res delectabit, licet ex-46 imia sit et salutaris, quam mihi uni sciturus sim. Si cum hac " exceptione detur sapientia, ut illam inclusam teneam, nec enun-"ciem, rejiciam: nullius boni, fine socio, jucunda possessio est +." It was this passion which gave birth to writing, and brought literary composition to an art; whereby the Public was made a sharer in those important truths, which particulars had with so much toil excogitated for its use and entertainment. The principal object therefore of an author, while his passions are in their right state, must needs be to deliver his sentiments and opinions with all posfible clearness; so that no particular cast of composition, or turn of expression, which he held conducive to the embellishment of his

<sup>\*</sup> De Amicitis. Edit. Oxon. 4to, T. III. p. 349 et 50.

<sup>†</sup> Ep. vi.

#### EXVIII DEDICATION TO THE FREE-THINKERS.

work, be suffered to throw an ambiguity on his propositions, which might mislead the reader in judging of his real sentiments. To such a one, nothing can be a greater mortification than to find that this his principal purpose was deseated.

But when, on the contrary, we see a writer, so far from discovering any thing of this care, that an air of negligence appears in every thing he delivers; a visible contempt of his reader's satisfaction; to which he prefers a dull malicious pleasure of misguiding him in the obscurity of an illimited ridicule; we cannot possibly avoid concluding that such a one is far gone in this wretched depravity of heart.

2. Another mark, is Your perpetually assuming some PERSONATED CHARACTER, as the exigence of chicane requires. For the dispute is to be kept on foot; and therefore, when in danger of coming to an issue, a new personage is to be assumed, that the trial of skill may be fought over again with different weapons. So that the modern Free-thinker, is a persect *Proteus*. He is now a Dissenter, or a Papist; now again a Jew, or a Mahometan; and, when closely pressed and hunted through all the shapes, he at length starts up in his genuine form, an Infidel confessed.

Indeed where the Magistrate hath confined the liberty of free debate, to one or two Professions of belief, There an unlicenced writer hath no way of publishing his speculations, but under the cover of one of these authorized Sects. But to affect this practice when the necessity is over, is licentious and immoral. For the personated character, only arguing ad bominem, embroils, rather than directs us, in the search of truth; has a natural tendency to promote scepticism; and if not this, yet it keeps the dispute from ever coming to an issue; which is attended with great public inconveniencies. For though the discovery of speculative truth be of much importance to the persection of man's nature, yet the studious lengthening out literary debates is pernicious to Society, as Societies

are generally formed. Therefore, though the good of mankind would fet an honest man upon publishing what he supposes to be discoveries in truth; yet the same motive would oblige him to take the fairest, and most direct road to their reception.

But I would not have it thought, by this, that I condemn the affurning a personated character on all occasions whatsoever. There are seasons when it is fair and expedient. When the dispute is about the PRACTICAL application of some truth to the good of a particular society; there it is prudent to take up a suitable character, and to argue ad bominem. For there, the end is a benefit to be gained for that society; and it is not of so great moment on what principles the majority is prevailed upon to make the society happy, as it is, that it should speedily become so. But in the discovery of ABSTRACT SPECULATIVE truth, the affair goes quite otherwise. The business here is demonstration, not persuasion. And it is of the effence of truth, to be made appear and shine out only by its own lustre.

A familiar example will support this observation. Our great Britifb philosopher, writing for religious liberty, combats his intolerant adversary, all the way, with his own Principles; well knowing that, in such a time of prejudices, arguments built on received opinions would have greatest weight, and make quickest impression on the body of the People, whom it was his business to gain. But the method he employed in defending mere speculative truth was very different. A Prelate of great name, was pleased to attack his Essay concerning buman understanding; who, though consummate in the learning of the Schools, yet happened at that time to apply his principles fo very aukwardly, as gave our Philosopher the most inviting opportunity of turning them against him. An advantage most to the taste of him who contends only for victory: but he contended for truth: and was too wife to think of establishing it on falshood; and too honest to affect triumphing over Error by any thing but by its Opposite.

You see then, Gentlemen, you are not likely to escape by this distinction; the dispute with you is about speculative truth: Your-selves

selves take care to give the world repeated information of it, as often as you think sit to seign an apprehension of the Magistrate's resentment.

But of as little use as this method, of the personated character, is, in itself, to the just end of controversy, you generally add a double share of disingenuity in conducting it. Common sense, as well as Common honesty, requires, that he who assumes a personated character should fairly stick to it, for that turn, at least. But we shall be greatly deceived, if we presume on so much condescension: the late famous author of The Grounds and Reasons of the Christian Religion, took it into his head to personate a Jew, in the interpretation of some propheties which he would perfuade us are not applicable to Jesus. The learned Prelate, who undertook to answer him, having shewn that those prophesies had no completion under the Jewish dispensation, concludes very pertinently, that if they did not belong to Jesus, they belong to no one. What says our impostor Jew to this? One would be astonished at his reply: Suppose they do not, fays he, I am not answerable for their completion. What! not as a Yew? whose person he assumes, and whose argument he borrows: which argument is not founded on this, That the characters of completion, according to the Christian scheme, do not coincide and quadrate; to which, indeed, the above answer would be pertinent; but on this, that there are complete characters of the completion of the prophesies, under the Jewish occonomy; and therefore, says the Yew, you are not to look for those marks under the Christian. The only reasonable way then of replying to this argument, is to deny, that there are such marks under the Yewish œconomy; which if the Jew cannot prove, his objection, founded on a prior completion, is intirely overthrown. Instead of this, we are put off with the cold buffoonry of, I am not obliged to find a meaning for your prophefies.

3. The third mark of this abandoned spirit, is that unnatural MIXTURE OF THE SCEPTIC AND DOGMATIST, which so mon-strough

strously variegates your misshapen works. I do not mean by it, that unreasonable temper of mind, which distinguishes the whole class of Free-thinkers; and suffers you, at the same time that you affect much scepticism in rejecting Revelation, to dogmatize very positively on some favourite points of civil tradition. The noble author, your Apologist, could not forbear to ridicule his party for this soible \*. "It must certainly, says he, be something else than incredulity which fashions the taste and judgment of many Gentlemen, whom we hear censured as Atheists. Who, if they want a true "Israelitish faith, can make amends by a Chinese or Indian one.—"Though Christian miracles may not so well satisfy them, they dwell with the highest contentment on the prodigies of Moorish and Pagan countries."

This is ill enough; but the perversity, I speak of, is much worse: and that is, when the same writer, on different occasions, assumes the *Dogmatist* and *Sceptic* on the same question; and so abuses both Characters, in all the perversity of self-contradiction.

For instance, how common is it for one of Your writers, when he brings Pagan antiquity to contradict and discredit the Jewish, to cry up a Greek historian as an evidence, to which nothing can be objected? An imperfect hint from Herodotus, or Diodorus, though one lived a thousand, and the other fisteen hundred years after the case in question, picked up from any lying traveller the one met with in his rambles, or the other sound in his collections, shall now outweigh the circumstantial History of Moses, who wrote of his own People, and lived in the times he wrote of. But now turn the tables, and apply the testimony of these Writers, and of others of the best credit of the same nation, to the confirmation of the Jewish bistory, and then nothing is more uncertain and sallacious than classical Antiquity. All is darkness and confusion: then we are sure to hear of,

——Quicquid Græcia mendax Audet in historia——

<sup>\*</sup> Characteristics, vol. i. p. 345. edit. 3-

### XXXII DEDICATION TO THE FREE-THINKERS.

Then Herodotus is a lying traveller, and Diodorus Siculus a tasteless collector.

Again, when the choice and separation of the Israelites for God's peculiar People, is to be brought in question, and made ridiculous, they are represented as the vilest, the most profligate, and perverse race of men: then every indiscreet passage of a declamatory Divine is raked up with care to make them odious; and even the hard sate of the great historian Josephus pitied, that he had "no better a sub" ject than such an illiterate, barbarous, and ridiculous people \*."

But when the Scripture-account of the treatment, which the Holy Jesus met with from them, is thought fit to be disputed; these Jews are become an humane and wise Nation; which never interfered with the teachings of sects, or the propagation of opinions, but where the public safety was thought to be in danger by seditious doctrines.

But so it is, even with the BIBLE itself, and its best interpreter, HUMAN REASON. It is generally allowed that the Author of the Discourse of Free-thinking, and of the Grounds and Reasons of the Christian Religion, was one and the same person. Now it being to this man's purpose in the first pamphlet, to blast the credit of the book in general, as a rule of faith, the Bible is represented as a most obscure, dark, incomprehensible collection of multifarious tracts. But in his discourse of The Grounds, etc. where + he is to obviate the reason of the difficulty in explaining ancient Prophesies, drawn from the genius of the Eastern style, sentiment, and manners; this very book is, on a sudden, become so easy, plain, and intelligible, that no one can possibly mistake its meaning.

Again, the same Writer, where, in his Essay concerning the Use of Reason, he thinks sit to discredit the doctrine of the ever blessed Trinity, and other mysteries of the Christian Faith, represents hu-

Discourse of Free-thinking, p. 157.

<sup>+</sup> Discourse of Free-thinking, p. 68, and of the Grounds and Reasons of the Christian Religion, p. 82, 82.

man reason as omniscient, and the full measure of all things: but when the proof of the immateriality of the soul, from the qualities of MATTER and SPIRIT, is to be obstinately opposed, the scene is shifted, and we are presented with a new face of things: then Reason becomes weak, staggering, and impotent: then we know not but one quality may be another quality; one mode, another mode; Motion may be consciousness; and Matter sentient.

These, Gentlemen, are the several ways in which you have abused the LIBERTY OF THE PRESS. One might defy you, with all your good will or invention, to contrive a new one, or to go further in the old; You have done your worst. It is time to think of growing better. This is the only inference I would draw from your bad conduct. For I am not one of those who say you should be disfranchised of the Rights you have so wantonly and wickedly abused. Natural rights were less precariously bestowed: the Civil, indeed, are frequently given on the condition of the Receiver's good behaviour. And this difference, in the security of the possession, is founded in the plainest reason. Natural rights are so necessary to our Being, that, without them, Life becomes miserable; but the Civil only contributing to our easier accommodation, in some circumstances of it, may be forseited without injury to our common Nature.

In a word then, all that we defire is your amendment; without any finister aim of calling upon the Magistrate to quicken your pace. So I leave you, as I dare say will He, to yourselves. Nor let any good man be above measure scandalized at your saults; or more impatient for your reformation, than mere charity demands. I do not know what panic the present growth of Insidelity may have thrown some of us into: I, for my part, conside so much in the goodness of our Cause, that I too could be tempted to laugh in my turn, while I think of an old story told us by Herodotus +,

of

<sup>\*</sup> See his Answers to Dr. Clarke.

<sup>†</sup> Lib. ii. c. 14. Vid. Plutarch. Symp. l. iv. Prob. 5. The learned Gale cannot be reconciled to this kind of husbandry. He is therefore for having the word T5, used by HeVol. I.

Fredomic,

### TEXES DEDICATION TO THE FREE-THINKERS.

of your favourite EGYPTIANS; of whom you are like to hear a great deal in the following work. With this tale I shall beg leave to conclude my long address unto you.

He tells us then, that at what time their Deity, the NILE, returns into his ancient channel; and the husbandman hath committed the good seed to the opening glebe, it was their custom to turn in whole droves of Swine; to range, to trample, root up, and destroy at pleasure. And now nothing appeared but desolation, while the ravages of the obscene herd had killed every chearful hope of future plenty. When on the issue, it was seen, that all their perversity and dirty taste had effected, was only this; that the seed took better root, incorporated more kindly with the soil, and at length shot up in a more luxuriant and abundant harvest.

I am,

### GENTLEMEN, elc.

redorns, not to fignify favine, but cows or beifers. His authority for this use of the word is Hespobius. But Plutarch is a much better for the other signification, who in his Symp. quoted above, speaking to the question Hérodotus, and understands by Ic favine. The truth of the matter seems to be this, Hespobius sound that Is, in some obscure province or others, meant a Heiser, as noings amongst the Tyrrbenium, we are told, meant a goat, and so put it down to inrich his dictionary with an unusual signification.

# PÖSTSCRIPT

TOTHE

## D E D I C A T I O N

T O

## THE FREE-THINKERS,

### IN THE EDITION OF 1766.

POET and a Critic \*, of equal eminence, have concurred, though they did not start together, to censure what was occasionally said in this Dedication (as if it had been addressed to them) of the use and abuse of Ridicule. The Poet was a sollower of Lord Shaftesbury's fancies; the Critic a sollower of his own. Both Men of TASTE, and equally anxious for the well doing of Ridicule. I have given some account of the latter in a note of the Dedication +. The other was too sull of the subject, and of himself, to be dispatched with so little ceremony: he must therefore undergo an examination apart.

Since it is (fays he) beyond all contradiction evident, that we have a natural fense or feeling of the ridiculous, and since so good a Reason may be assigned to justify the supreme Being for bestowing it; one cannot without astonishment restell on the conduct of those Men who imagine it for the service of true Religion to vilify and blacken it without distinction, and endeavour to persuade us, that it is never applied but in a bad cause ‡. The Reason here given, to shew, that

<sup>·</sup> See Pleasures of Imagination, and Elements of Criticism,

<sup>†</sup> Page xvii.

<sup>†</sup> Pleasures of Imagination, p. 105, 106.

### XXXVI POSTSCRIPT TO THE DEDICATION

Ridicule and Buffoonry may be properly employed on serious and even facred subjects, is admirable: it is because we have a natural fense or feeling of the ridiculous, and because no sensation was given us in vain; which would ferve just as well to excuse Adultery or Incest. For have we not as natural a sense or feeling of the voluptuous? Yes, he will say, but this fense has its proper object, virtuous love, not adulterous or incestuous: And does he think, I will not fay the same of his sense of the ridiculous? Its proper objects are, not weighty and Sacred matters, but the civil customs and common occurrences of life. For he stretched a point when he told the Reader, I vilified and blackened it without distinction. The thing I there opposed, was the abusive way of art and raillery on religious Subjects. With as little regard to Truth did he fay, that I endeavoured to persuade the Public, that it is never applied but in a bad cause: For, in that very place, I apologized for an eminent writer who had applied it in a good one.

Ridicule (fays he) is not [i. e. ought not to be] concerned with mere speculative Truth and Falshood. Certainly. And, for that very reason I would exclude it from those Subjects. What need? he will say, for when was it so employed? When, does he ask?—When his Master ridiculed the Subject of Mr. Locke's Essay of Human Understanding, in the manner there mentioned. When the same noble person ridiculed Revelation, in the merry Story of the travelling Gentlemen, who put a wrong bias on their Reason in order to believe right \*.—

He goes on, It is not in abstract Propositions on Theorems, but in Actions and Passions, Good and Evil, Beauty and Desormity, that we find Materials for it; and all these Terms are relative, implying Approbation or Blame. The reason here given, why, not abstract Propositions, &c. but Actions and Passions, &c. are the subject of ridicule is, because these latter are relative Terms implying Approbation and Blame. But are not the former as much relative Terms, im-

<sup>\*</sup> Charact. vol. III. Misc. 2. c. 3. p. 99.

plying Affent and Denial? And does not an absurd Proposition as frequently afford materials for Ridicule as an absurd Action? Let the Reader determine by what he finds before him.—To ask then, (says he) whether Ridicule be a Test of truth, is, in other words, to ask whether that which is ridiculous can be morally true; can be just and becoming: or whether that which is just and becoming can be ridiculous. A question that does not deserve a serious answer. However, in civility to his Master, or rather indeed to his Master's Masters, the ancient Sopbifts, who, we are told \* in the Characteriftics, faid fomething very like it, I shall give it a ferious answer. For how, I pray, comes it to pass, that to ask, whether ridicule be a test of truth, is the same thing as to ask whether that which is ridiculous can be morally true? As if, whatever thing the test of Ridicule was applied to, must needs be ridiculous. Might not one ask, Whether the Copel + be a test of gold, without incurring any absurdity in questioning, Whether the matter to which the Copel is applied be standard gold. But he takes a test of truth and a detection of error to be one and the same thing; and that nothing is brought to this test but what was known beforehand, whether it was true or false. His Master seems much better versed in the use of things 1. Now, what rule or measure (says he) is there in the world, except in considering the real temper of things, to find which are truly serious, and which ridiculous? And how can this be done, unless by applying the ridicule to see whether it will bear ?

But if the Reader be curious to see to the bottom of this affair, he must go a little deeper. Lord Shaftesbury, we find, was willing to know, as every honest man would, Whether those things, which had the appearance of seriousness and sanctity, were indeed what they appeared. The way of coming to this knowledge had been hitherto by the test of reason. But this was too dull and tedious a road for this lively genius. He would go a shorter and a

<sup>\*</sup> It was a faying of an ancient fage, "that humour was the only test of ridicule." Vol. I. p. 74.

<sup>†</sup> Copella, It. in English, a test. 1 Charact. vol. I. p. 12.

pleasanter way to work, and do the business by ridicule; given us. as his Disciple tells us, to aid the tardy sleps of reason. This the noble Author would needs apply, to fee whether the appearances would bear the Touch. Now it was this ingenious expedient, to which I thought I had cause to object. For when he had applied this Touch, and that that, to which it was applied, was found to endure it, what reparation could he make to Truth, for thus placing her in a ridiculous and idle light, in order only, as he pretended, to judge rightly of her? Oh, for that, faid his Lordship, she has the amends in her own hands: Let her railley again; for why should fair Honesty be denied the use of his Weapon \*? To this so wanton a liberty with facred Truth, I thought I had many good reasons to oppose; and so, it seems, thought our Poet likewise: Or why did he endeavour to excuse his Master, by putting another sense on the application of ridicule as a Test, which implies that the Truth or Falshood of the thing tried, is already known. But the shift is unlucky; for while it covers his Master, it exposes himself. For now it may be asked, what need of ridicule at all, after the Truth is known; fince the fole use of a test, according to his Master, consists in enabling us to discover the true state of things?

But now he comes to the Philosophy of his Criticism on my abfurdity. For it is most evident (says he) that as in a metaphysical Proposition offered to the Understanding for its assent, the faculty of Reason examines the terms of the Proposition; and sinding one Idea, which was supposed equal to another, to be in sast unequal, of consequence rejects the Proposition as a salshood: So in Objects offered to the Mind sor its esteem or applause, the faculty of ridicule feeling an incongruity in the claim, urges the Mind to reject it with laughter and contempt. And now, how does this sublime account, of Reason and Ridicule, prove the foregoing Proposition to be absurd? Just as much, I suppose, as the height of St. Paul's proves Grantham Steeple to stand awry.

However, if it cannot prove what precedes, he will try to make it inser what follows: When THEREFORE (says he) we observe such a claim obtruded upon Mankind, and the inconsistent circumstances carefully concealed from the eye of the Public, it is our business, if the matter be of importance to Society, to drag out those latent circumstances, and, by setting them full in view, convince the World bow ridiculous the Claim is; and thus a double advantage is gained; for we both detect the moral Falshood sooner than in the way of speculative enquiry, and impress the minds of Men with a stronger sense of the vanity and error of its Authors. And this, and no more, is meant by the application of Ridicule. A little more, if we may believe his Master: who says, it is not only to detett Error, but to try Truth, that is, in his own expression, to see whether it will bear. But why all this a-do? for now, we see, nobody mistook what was meant by the application of Ridicule, but himself.—As to what he said before, that when Objects are offered to the Mind for its esteem and applause, the faculty of Ridicule, feeling an incongruity in the Claim, urges the Mind to reject it with laughter and contempt; it is so expressed, as if he intended it not for the description of the Use, but the essence of Ridicule. But the dealers in this Trash frequently urge the Mind to reject many thingswith laughter and contempt, without feeling any other incongruity, than in their own pretentions to Truth and Honesty. And this, our Poet seems to be no stranger to.

For now he comes to the point.—But it is faid the practice is dangerous, and may be inconfishent with the regard we owe to Objects of real dignity and excellence. I answer, the practice, FAIRLY MANAGED, can never be dangerous. Who ever thought any thing FAIRLY MANAGED to be dangerous? The danger is in the abuse or unsair management. The use of Stilleto's and Poisons, FAIRLY MANAGED, can never be dangerous. And yet this has not hindered all wise States, whenever they have found a violent propensity to the handling of these things, to forbid their promiscuous use, under the severest penalties, to prevent abuse and unsair management.

However,

However, he allows at length, that Men may be dishonest in obtruding circumstances foreign to the Object; and we may be inadvertent in allowing those circumstances to impose upon us; but-but what? Why the sense of Ridicule always judges right. And, he had told us before, that this is a natural fense, and bestowed upon us by the supreme Being, to aid our tardy sleps in pursuit of Reason. Why, as he fays, who can withstand this? Nothing can be clearer! Writers may be dishonest; Readers may be missed; and, the Public judge wrong. But what then, the sense of Ridicule always judges right. And while we can support our Platonic Republic of Ideas, it signifies little what becomes of the People, the Faces Romuli. And so again it is in the use of Poisons: Men may be dishonest in whtruding them; and we inadvertent enough to be imposed upon. But what then? The Virtue of Poison always does its kind. It is a natural power, and bestowed upon it by the supreme Being, to aid our tardy fleps in pursuit of Vermin. - In truth, one would imagine, by this extraordinary argument, that the question was not of the injury to Society by the abuse of Ridicule, but of the injury to Ridicule it felf.

But let us hear him out: The Socrates of Aristophanes is (it will be said) as truly a ridiculous character as ever was drawn. True; but it is not the character of Socrates, the divine Moralist, and Father of ancient Wisdom. Indeed!—But then, if, like the true Sosia, in the other Comedy, he must bear the blows of his sictitious Brother, what reparation is there to injured Virtue, to tell us, that he did not deserve them?

Again,—What then? Did the ridicule of the Poet hinder the Philosopher from detecting and disclaiming those foreign circumstances which he had fulsely introduced into his character, and thus rendering the Satirist doubly ridiculous in his turn? See here again! all his concern, we find, is, lest good Raillery should be heat at its own weapons. No, indeed, I cannot see how it could possibly hinder the Philosopher from detecting and disclaiming. But this it did, which surely deserves

deserves a little consideration, it hindered the *People* from seeing what he had detected and disclaimed——A mighty consolation, truly, to the illustrious Sufferer, that he disclaimed the Fool's Coat they had put upon him!

But what is the Sacrifice of a SOCRATES now and then to secure to us the free use of that inestimable blessing, Buffonry? So thinks our Poet; when all the Answer he gives to so natural, so compassionate an objection as this,—it nevertheless had an ill instuence on the minds of the People,—is telling us a story of the Atheist Spinoza; while the godlike Socrates is lest deserted, in the hands of his Judges; whither Ridicule, this noble guide of Truth, had safely brought him.

But let us hear the concluding answer which the respectable Spinoza is employed to illustrate.—And so (says he) has the reasoning of Spinoza made many Atheists; he has sounded it indeed on Suppositions utterly false; but allow him these, and his Conclusions are unavoidably true. And if we must reject the use of Ridicule because, by the imposition of false circumstances, things may be made to seem ridiculous, which are not so in themselves, Why we ought not in the same manner to reject the use of Reason, because, by proceeding on false Principles, conclusions will appear true which are impossible in Nature, let the vehement and obstinate Declaimers against Ridicule determine.

Nay, we dare trust it with any one; whose common sense is not all run to Taste. What! because Reason, the guide of Life, the support of Religion, the investigator of Truth, must be still used though it be continually subject to abuse; therefore Ridicule, the paultry bussion Mimic of Reason, must have the same indulgence! because a King must be intrusted with Government, though he may misuse his power; therefore the King's Fool shall be suffered to play the Madman! But upon what sooting standeth this extraordinary Claim? Why, we have a natural sense of the Ridiculous; and the Ridiculous has a natural feeling of the Incongruous; and then—who can forbear laughing? If to this, you add Taste, Beauty, Deformity, Moral-sense, Moral-restitude, Vol. I.

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Moral-fallbood; you have then, I think, the whole Theory of the RIDICULOUS. But who would have imagined, that while he was defending Ridicule from the charge of ABUSE, he should be adding fresh exceptions to his own Plea? Not indeed, that the comment difgraced the Text; or that there was much Incongruity in pleading for a fault he was just then committing. But so it is, that, where he is poetically marshalling the follies of human Life, he places the whole body of the Christian Clergy in the foremost rank. Amongst tuch, who, he tells us, assume some desirable quality or possession which evidently does not belong to them #.

- "Others, of graver Mien, behold; adorn'd
- "With holy Ensigns, how fublime they move,
- " And, bending oft their fanctimonious Eyes,
- " Take homage of the Simple-minded Throng,
- "AMBASSADORS OF HEAV'N +."

But let it go for what it is; A poor joke of his Master's t, and spoil'd too in the telling. The duluess of the Ridicule will sufficiently atone for the abuse of it.

I Charact. Vol. III. p. 336. \* Page 49. † Page 96.

### PREFACE

TO

### THE FIRST EDITION IN MDCCXXXVIII.

THE following sheets make the first volume of a work, defigned to prove the DIVINE ORIGIN OF THE JEWISH RELIGION. As the author was neither indebted, nor engaged to the Public, he hath done his Readers no injury in not giving them more; and had they not had this, neither he nor they, perhaps, had esteemed themselves losers. For writing for no Party, it is likely he will please none; and begging no Protection, it is more likely he will find none: and he must have more of the considence of a modern Writer than falls to his share, to think of making much way with the seeble effort of his own reason.

Writers, indeed, have been oft betrayed into strange absurd conclusions, from I can't tell what obsolete claim, which Letters have to the patronage of the Great: a relation, if indeed there ever were any, long since worn out and forgotten; the Great now seeming reasonably well convinced, that it had never any better foundation than the rhetorical importunity of Beggars.

But however this claim of Patronage may be understood, there is another of a more important nature; which is the Patronage of Religion. The Author begs leave to assure Those who have no time to spare from their attention on the Public, that the Protection

G<sub>2</sub> of

### zliv PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

of Religion is indispensably necessary to all Governments; and for his warrant he offers them the following volume; which endeavours to shew the necessity of Religion in general, and of the doctrine of a future state in particular, to civil Society, from the nature of things and the universal consent of Mankind. The proving this, I make no question, many Politicians will esteem sufficient: But those who are solicitous to have Religion true as well as useful, the author will endeavour to satisfy in the following volumes.

THE

## DIVINE LEGATION

OF

# M O S E S

### DEMONSTRATED.

### BOOK L

### SECT. I.

THE Writers, in defence of revealed Religion, distinguish their arguments into two sorts: the one they call the INTERNAL, and the other the EXTERNAL Evidence. Of these, the first is, in its nature, more simple and perfect; and even capable of demonstration: while the other, made up of very dissimilar materials, and borrowing aid from without, must needs have some parts of unequal strength with the rest; and, consequently, lie open to the attacks of a willing adversary. Besides, the internal evidence is, by its nature, perpetuated; and so sitted for all ages and occasions: while the external, by length of time, weakens and decays. For the nature and genius of the religion defended affording the proofs of the first kind, these materials of defence are inseparable from its existence; and so throughout all ages the same. But Time may,

may, and doth, efface memorials independent of that existence; out of which the external evidence is composed: which evidence must therefore become more and more imperfect, without being affected by that whimfical and partial calculation, to which a certain Scotchman \* would subject it +. Nay, of such use is the internal evidence, that, even the very best of the external cannot support itself without it: for when (for instance) the supernatural facts done by the founders of our holy faith, are unquestionably verified by human testimony, the evidence of their divinity will not follow till the nature of that doctrine be examined, for whose establishment they were performed. Indeed, in the instance here given, they must be inforced in conjunction before any conclusion can be drawn for the truth of the Revelation in question. But were there no other benefit arising from the cultivation of the internal evidence than the gaining, by it, a more perfect knowledge of God's word; this, fure, would be enough to engage us in a vigorous profecution of it. That this is one of its fruits I need not tell such as are acquainted with its nature. And it is not without occasion I take notice of this advantage: for who, in this long controversy between us and the Deists, hath not applied to certain advocates of Revelation, what was formerly said of Arnobius and Lactantius, that they undertook the defence of Christianity before they understood it? A misfortune which

<sup>\*</sup> Craig, Theologiæ Christ. Principia Mathematica, London, 1699, 4to.

<sup>+</sup> This gradual weakening of the external evidence hath in fact actually happened; and was occasioned by the loss of several ancient testimonies, both Pagan and Christian, for the truth of Revelation; which learned men, on several occasions, have frequently lamented. This is the only way, I suppose, the external evidence can weaken.—As it is of the nature of true Religion to suffer by time, so it is of the nature of the false to gain by it. "L'Antiquité convient à la Religion (says the learned President de Montesquien) "parce que souvent nous croyons plus les choses à mesure qu'elles sont plus reculées; "car nous n'avons pas dans la tête des idées accessoires tirées de ces temps-la, qui puis- sent les contradire." L'Esprit des Loix, lib. xxvi. c. 2. For whatever Religion, thus circumstanced, the Writer had then in his thoughts, he must needs suppose it to be a salse one; it being nonsense to suppose the true should ever be attended with any external evidence which argued it of salsehood.

And

probably, the more careful study of the internal evidence would have prevented; because no one, well versed in that, could have continued ignorant of so important a principle, as that THE DOCTRINE OF REDEMPTION IS OF THE VERY ESSENCE OF CHRISTIANITY. Notwithstanding these superior advantages, it hath so happened, that the internal evidence hath been hitherto used as an introduction only to the external: and while by the latter, men have proved our Religion actually divine, they have gone no further with the former, than to shew it worthy indeed of such original.

What may have occasioned this neglect, is not so easy to say. Perhaps it was because Writers have, in general, imagined that the difficulties of profecuting the internal method to effect, are not fo easily furmounted as those which attend the other; as supposing that the Writer on the external evidence hath only need of the usual provision of church-history, common diligence, and judgement, to become master of his subject; while the reasoner on the internal proof, must, besides these, have a thorough knowledge of human Nature, civil Policy, the universal history of Mankind, an exact idea of the Mosaic and Christian Dispensations cleared from the froth and grounds of school-subtilties, and church-systems; and, above all, should be blessed with a certain fagacity, to investigate the relations of human actions, through all the combinations of natural, civil, and moral complexities. What may fuggest this conclusion is, their reflecting, that, in the external evidence, each circumstance, that makes for the truth of revealed Religion, is feen to do so, as soon as known: so that the chief labour, here, is to fearch and pick out such, and to place them in their proper light and fituation; but that, in profecuting the internal evidence, the case is widely different: a circumstance in the frame and compofition of this Religion, which perhaps, some time or other, may be discovered to be a Demonstration of its divinity, shall be so far from being generally thought assistant in its proof, that it shall be esteemed, by most, a prejudice against it: of which, I suppose, the subject of the following discourse will afford a remarkable example.

And no wonder, that a Religion of divine original, constituted to serve many admirable ends of Providence, should be full of such complicated mysteries, as filled the learned Apostle with astonishment. On the other hand, this Religion being for the use of man, we need not despair, when we have attained a proper knowledge of man's nature, and the dependencies thereon, of making still growing discoveries, on the internal evidence, of the divinity of its original.

Now, though all this may be true; and that, consequently, it would appear a childish arrogance in an ordinary writer, after having seen the difficulties attending this method, to hope to overcome them, by the qualities here said to be required; yet no modest searcher after truth need be discouraged. For there are, in revealed Religion, besides those interior marks of truth, above described, which require the delicate operation of a great Genius and Masterworkman to bring out and polish, others also, no less illustrious, but more univocal marks of truth, which God hath been pleased to impress upon his Dispensations; which require no great qualities, but humility, and love of truth, in him, who would from thence attempt to vindicate the ways of God to man.

The Subject of this Discourse is one of those illustrious marks: from which, the discoverer claims no merit from any long, learned, or laborious search. It is honour enough for him that he is the first who brings it out to observation; if he be indeed the first. For the demonstration is so strong and beautiful, and, at the same time, appears to be so easy and simple, that one cannot tell whether the pleasure of the discovery, or the wonder that it is now to make, be the greater.

The Medium, I employ, is the Omission of the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, in the laws and religion *Moses* delivered to the *Jewish* people. By this, I pretend to carry the *internal* evidence much further than usual; even to the height of which it is capable, moral demonstration.

Why I chuse to begin with the defence of Moses, is from obferving a notion to have spread very much of late, even amongst many who would be thought Christians, that the truth of Christianity is independent of the jewish Dispensation: a notion, which was, 'till now, peculiar to the Socinians; who go fo far as to maintain \*, that the knowledge of the Old Testament is not absolutely necesjury for Christians: and, those who profess to think more soberly, are generally gone into an opinion that the truth of the jewish Religion is impossible to be proved but upon the truth of the Chris-As to the first fort of people, if they really imagine Christianity hath no dependence on Judaism, they deserve our compasfion, as being plainly ignorant of the very elements of the Religion they profess; however suitable the opinion may be to a modern tashionable notion, not borrowed from, but the same with, the Socinian, that Christianity is only the republication of the religion of Nature. As for the more fober, it is reasonable to think, that they fell into the mistake from a view of difficulties, in the jewish Dispenfation, which they judged too stubborn to be removed. I may pretend then to their thanks, if I succeed, by coming so seasonably to their relief; and freeing their reasonings from a vicious circle, which would first prove the christian by the jewish; and then the jewish, by the christian Religion.

Why I chuse this medium, namely, the omission of a suture state in the jewish Dispensation, to prove its divine original, is, First, for the sake of the Deists: being enabled hereby to shew them, 1. That this very circumstance of Omission, which they pretend to be such an impersection, as makes the Dispensation unworthy the Author to whom we ascribe it, is, in truth, a Demonstration that God only could give it. 2. That those several important passages of Scripture, which they charge with obscurity, injustice, and contradiction, are, indeed, full of light, equity, and concord. 3. That their high notions of the antiquity of the Religion and Learning

<sup>\*</sup> Cuper, advers. Tract. Theol. Polit. lib. i.

of the Ægyptians, which they incessantly produce, as their palmary argument, to confront and overturn the history of Mojes, do, in an invincible manner, confirm and support it.

Secondly. For the take of the JEWS; who will, at the fame time, be shewn, that the nature of the THEOCRACY here delivered, and the omission of the doctrine of a future state in that Dispensation, evidently obliges them to look for a more perfect revelation of God's Will

Thirdly, For the sake of the Socinians; who will find, that Christianity agrees neither with itself, nor with fudaism; neither with the Dispensations of God, nor the declared purpose of his Son's Mission, on their principle, of its being only a republication of the religion of Nature.

In this Demonstration, therefore, which we suppose very little short of mathematical certainty, and to which nothing but a mere physical possibility of the contrary can be opposed, we demand only this single *Postulatum*, that hath all the clearness of self-evidence; namely,

"That a skilful Lawgiver, establishing a Religion, and civil Po"licy, acts with certain views, and for certain ends; and not
"capriciously, or without purpose or design."

This being granted, we erect our Demonstration on these three very clear and simple propositions:

- 1. "That to inculcate the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, is necessary to the well being of civil society.
- 2. "THAT ALL MANKIND, ESPECIALLY THE MOST WISE AND
  LEARNED NATIONS OF ANTIQUITY, HAVE CONCURRED IN
  BELIEVING AND TEACHING, THAT THIS DOCTRINE WAS OF
  SUCH USE TO CIVIL SOCIETY.

3. "That the doctrine of a future state of rewards and 
"punishments is not to be found in, nor did make 
"part of, the mosiac dispensation."

Propositions so clear and evident, that, one would think, we might directly proceed to our Conclusion,

THAT THEREFORE THE LAW OF MOSES IS OF DIVINE ORIGINAL. Which, one or both of the two following syllogisms will evince.

I. Whatfoever Religion and Society have no future state for their support, must be supported by an extraordinary Providence.

The Jewish Religion and Society had no future state for their support:

Therefore, the Jewish Religion and Society were supported by an extraordinary Providence.

## And again,

II. The ancient Lawgivers univerfally believed that such a Religion could be supported only by an extraordinary Providence.

Moses, an ancient Lawgiver, versed in all the wisdom of Egypt, purposely instituted such a Religion.

Therefore, Moses believed his Religion was supported by an extraordinary Providence.

But so capricious are men's passions, now for PARADOX, and now for SYSTEM, that these, with all their evidence, have need of a very particular desence; Libertines and Unbelievers denying the MAJOR propositions of both these Syllogisms; and many Bigots amongst Believers, the MINOR of the first. These passions, however different with regard to the objects that excite them, and to the subjects in which they are found, have this in common, that they never rise but on the ruins of Reason. The business of the Religionist being to establish, if his Understanding be too much narrowed,

rowed, he contracts himself into System: and that of the Insidel, to overturn; if his Will be depraved, he, as naturally, runs out into Paradoxes. Slavish, or licentious thinking, the two extremes of free enquiry, shuts them up from all instructive views, or makes them sly out beyond all reasonable limits. And as extremes fall easily into one another, we sometimes see the opposite writers change hands: the Insidel, to shew something like coherence in his paradoxes, represents them as the several parts of a system; and the Religionist, to give a relish to his system, powders it with paradoxes: in which arts, two late Hibernians\*, the heroes of their several parties, were very notably practised and distinguished.

It was not long then before I found, that the discovery of this important truth would ingage me in a full dilucidation of the Premission of the two Syllogisms: the Major of both requiring a severe search into the civil Policy, Religion, and Philosophy of ancient times; and the Minor, a detailed account of the nature and genius of the jewish Dispensation. The present volume is destined to the first part of this labour; and the following, to the second. Where, in removing the objections which lie in our way, on both sides, we shall be obliged to stretch the inquiry high and wide. But this, always, with an eye to the direction of our great master of reason +, to endeavour, throughout the body of this discourse, that every former part may give strength unto all that follow, and every latter bring some light unto all before.

## S E C T. II.

HE first proposition, THAT TO INCULCATE THE DOCTRINE OF A FUTURE STATE OF REWARDS AND PUNISHMENTS IS NECESSARY TO THE WELL BEING OF CIVIL SOCIETY, I shall endea-

<sup>\*</sup> See the discourse called Nazarenus—An Epistolary Discourse concerning the Immortality of the Soul,——Differtationes Cyprianicz, &c.

<sup>+</sup> Hooket.

vour to prove, from the nature of man, and the genius of civil fociety.

The general appetite of felf-preservation being most indispensable to every animal, nature hath made it the strongest of all. And though, in the rational, this faculty alone might be supposed sufficient to answer the end, for which that appetite is bestowed on the others, yet, the better to secure that end, nature hath given man, likewise, a very considerable share of the same instinct, with which the hath endowed brutes fo admirably to provide for their prefervation. Now whether it was some plastic Nature that was here in fault, which Bacon fays, knows not bow to keep a mean \*, or, that it was all owing to the perverse use of human liberty, certain it is, that, borne away with the lust of gratifying this appetite, man, in a state of nature, soon ran into very violent excesses; and never thought he had fufficiently provided for his own being, till he had deprived his fellows of the free enjoyment of theirs. Hence, all those evils of mutual violence, rapine, and flaughter, which, in a state of nature, where all are equal, must needs be abundant. Because, though man, in this state, was not without a law, which exacted punishment on evil doers, yet, the administration of that law not being in common hands, but either in the person offended, who being a party would be apt to inforce the punishment to excess; or else in the hands of every one, as the offence was against all, and affected the good of each not immediately or directly, would be executed remissly. And very often, where both these executors of the law of nature were disposed, the one to be impartial, and the other not remiss in the administration of justice, they would yet want sufficient power to enforce it. Which together would so much inflame the evils above mentioned, that they would foon become as general, and as intolerable, as the Hobbeist represents them in that state to be, were it not for the restraining principle of RELIGION, which kept men from running into the confusion neces-

<sup>· \*</sup> Modum tenere nescia est. Augm. Scient.

farily consequent on the principle of inordinate self-love. But yet Religion could not operate with sufficient efficacy, for want, as we observed before, of a common Arbiter, who had impartiality fairly to apply the rule of right, and power to ensorce its operations. So that these two principles were in endless jar; in which, Justice generally came by the worst. It was therefore sound necessary to call in the civil magistrate as the Ally of Religion, to turn the balance.

Jura inventa metu injusti, fateare necesse est, Tempora si fastosque velis evolvere mundi.

Thus was Society invented for a remedy against injustice; and a Magistrate, by mutual consent, appointed, to give a sanction 46 to that common measure, to which, reason teaches us, that " creatures of the same rank and species, promitcuously born to "the same advantages of nature and to the use of the same fa-" culties, have all an equal right "." Where it is to be observed. that though fociety provides for all those conveniences and accommodations of a more elegant life, which man must have been content to have lived without, in a state of nature; yet it is more than probable that these were never thought of when Society was first established +; but that they were the mutual violences and injustices, at length become intolerable, which fet men upon contriving this generous remedy: Because Evil felt hath a much thronger influence on the mind than Good imagined; and the means of removing the one is much easier discovered, than the way to procure the other. And this, by the wife disposition of the Creator; the avoiding pain

<sup>\*</sup> Locke.

<sup>†</sup> Though the judicious Hooker thinks those advantages were principally intended, when man first entered into society: this was the canse, says he, of mens uniting themselves at first into politique societies. Eccl. Pol. l. i. § 10. pag. 25. l. 1. His master Aristotle, though extremely concise, seems to hint, that this was but the secondary end of civil society, and that That was the first, which we make to be so. His words are: prophira pin wir sin so sin to some sin to

being necessary to our nature; not so, the procuring pleasure. Besides, the idea of those unexperienced conveniencies would be, at best, very obscure: and how unable men would be, before trial, to judge that Society would bestow them, we may guess by observing, how little, even now, the generality of men, who enjoy these blessings, know or resect that they are owing to society, or how it procures them; because it doth it neither immediately nor directly. But they would have a very lively sense of evils felt; and could see that Society was the remedy, because the very definition of the word would teach them how it becomes so. Yet because civil Society so greatly improves human life, this improvement may be ealled, and not unaptly, the secondary end of that Convention. Thus, as Arisotle accurately observes in the words below, that which was at sirst constituted for the sake of living, is carried on for the sake of bappy living.

This is further seen from fact. For we find those savage nations \*, which happen to live peaceably out of society, have never once entertained a thought of coming into it, though they perceive all the advantages of that improved condition, in their civilized neighbours, round about them.

Civil Society thus established, from this time, as the poet sings,

absistere bello

Oppida cæperunt munire, & ponere leges, Ne quis fur esset, neu latro, neu quis adulter.

But as before bare RELIGION was no preservative against moral disorders: so now, SOCIETY alone, would be equally unable to prevent them.

I. 1. For first, its laws can have no further efficacy than to reftrain men from open transgression; while what is done amis in

private,

<sup>\*</sup> See § V. iv. 2. where it is shewn, how it might happen that men, in a state of nature, might live together in peace: though we have there given the reasons why they very rarely do.

private, though equally tending to the public hurt, escapes their animadversion; and man, since his entering into Society, would have greatly improved his practice in this secret way of mischies. For now an effectual security being provided against open violence, and the inordinate principle of self love being still the same, secret crast was the art to be improved; and the guards of Society inviting men to a careless security, what advantages this would afford to those hidden mischiess which civil laws could not censure, is easy to conceive.

- 2. But, fecondly, the influence of civil Laws cannot, in all cases, be extended even thus far, namely, to restrain open transgression. It cannot then, when the severe prohibition of one irregularity threatens the bringing on a greater: and this will always be the case when the irregularity is owing to the violence of the sensual appetites. Hence it hath come to pass, that no great and opulent Community could ever punish fornication, in such a sort as its ill influence on society was confessed to deserve: because it was always found, that a severe restraint of this, opened the way to more flagitious lusts.
- 3. The very attention of civil Laws to their principal object occasions a further inefficacy in their operations. To understand this we must consider, that the care of the State is for the whole, under which individuals are considered but in the second place, as accessaries only to that whole; the consequence of which is, that, for the sake of the Aggregate, individuals are sometimes left neglected; which happens when general, rather than particular views ingross the public attention. Now the care of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention. Now the same of Religion is for particular views ingross the public attention.
- 4. But this was not all, there was a further inefficacy in human Laws: the Legislature, in enquiring into the mutual duties of Citizens, arising from their equality of condition, found those duties

to be of two kinds: the first, they intituled the duties of PER-PECT OBLIGATION; because civil Laws could readily, and commodioufly, and were, of necessity, required to enforce their observance. The other they called the duties of IMPERFECT OBLIGA-TION; not, that morality does not as strongly exact them, but because, civil Laws could not conveniently take notice of them; and, that they were supposed not so immediately and vitally to affect the being of Society. Of this latter kind are gratitude, bospitality, charity, &c. Concerning such, civil Laws, for these reasons, are generally filent. And yet, though it may be true, that these duties, which human Laws thus overlook, may not so directly affect Society, it is very certain, that their violation brings on as fatal, though not so swift destruction, as that of the duties of perfect obligation. A very competent judge, and who also speaks the sentiment of Antiquity in this matter, hath not scrupled to say: "Ut " scias per se expetendam esse grati animi adsectionem, per se su-46 gienda res est ingratum esse: quoniam nihil æque concordiam hu-" mani generis dissociat ac distrahit quam hoc vitium "."

- 5. But still further, besides these duties both of perfect and imperfect obligation, for the encouraging and enforcing of which civil Society was invented; Society itself begot and produced a new set of duties, which are, to speak in the mode of the Legislature, of imperfect obligation: the first and principal of which is that antiquated forgotten virtue called the LOVE OF OUR COUNTRY.
- 6. But lastly, Society not only introduced a new set of duties, but likewise increased and inflamed, to an infinite degree, those inordinate appetites, for whose correction it was invented and introduced: like some kind of powerful medicines, which, at the very time they are working a cure, heighten the malignity of the disease. For our wants increase, in proportion as the arts of life advance. But in proportion to our wants, so is our uneasiness;—to our uneasiness, so our endeavours to remove it—to our endeavours, so the weakness of buman restraint. Hence it is evident, that in

<sup>\*</sup> Scneca de Benef. lib. iv. cap. 18.

a STATE OF NATURE, where little is consulted but the support of our being, our wants must be sew, and our appetites, in proportion, weak; and that in CIVIL SOCIETY, where the arts of life are cultivated, our wants must be many, and our appetites, in proportion, strong.

II. Thus far concerning the imperfection of civil Society, with regard to the administration of that power which it hath, namely of punishing Transgressors. We shall next consider its much greater imperfection with regard to that power which it wanteth; namely of rewarding the Obedient.

The two great fanctions of all Law and Command are REWARD and PUNISHMENT. These are generally called the two hinges, on which all kinds of Government turn. And so far is certain, and apparent to the common sense of mankind, that whatever laws are not enforced by both these fanctions, will never be observed in any degree sufficient to carry on the ends of civil Society.

Yet, I shall now shew, from the original constitution and nature of this Society, that it neither had, nor could enforce, the sanction of REWARD.

But, to avoid mistakes, I desire it may be observed, that by reward, must needs here be meant, such as is conserved on every one for obeying the laws of his country; not such as is bestowed on particulars, for any eminent service: as by punishment we understand that which is institled on every one for transgressing the laws; not that which is imposed on particulars, for neglecting to do all the service in their power.

I make no doubt but this will be called a paradox; nothing being more common in the mouths of politicians\*, than that the fanctions of reward and punishment are the two pillars of civil government; and all the modern Utopias and ancient systems of speculative po-

Neque solum ut Solonis dictum usurpem, qui & sapientissimus suit ex septem, & legum scriptor solus ex septem. Is rempublicam duabus rebus contineri dixit, pramio & panâ. Cic. ad Brutum, Ep. 15. Edit. Oxon. 4to. T. IX. p. 85, 86.

litics derive the whole vigour of their laws from these two sources. In support then of my assertion, permit me to insorce the two sollowing propositions:

- I. That, by the original confliction of civil Government, the fanction of rewards was not established by it.
- II. That by the very nature of civil Government they could not be established.
- 1. The truth of the first proposition appears from hence. On entering into Society, it was stipulated, between the Magistrate and People, that protection and obedience thould be the reciprocal conditions of each other. When, therefore, a citizen obeys the laws, that debt on Society is discharged by the protection it affordeth him. But in respect to disobedience, the proceeding is not analogous; (though protection, as the condition of obedience, implies the withdrawing of it, for disobedience;) and for these reasons: The effect of withdrawing protection must be either expulsion from the Society, or the exposing the offender to all kind of licence, from others, in it. Society could not practife the first, without bringing the body politic into a confumption; nor the latter without throwing it into convultions. Besides, the first is no punishment at all, but by accident; it being only the leaving one Society to enter into another: and the fecond is a very inadequate punishment; for though all obedience be the same, and so, uniform protection a proper return for it; yet disobedience being of various kinds and degrees, the withdrawing protection, in this latter sense, would be too great a punishment for fome crimes, and too small for others.

This being the case, it was stipulated that the transgressor should be subject to pecuniary mulcts, corporal institution, mutilation of members, and capital severities. Hence arose the Sanction, and the anly sanction of civil Laws: for, that protection is no reward, in the sense which these are punishments, is plain from hence, that the one is of the essence of Society itself; the other an occasional adjunct. But this will further appear by considering the opposite to protection, which is expulsion, or banishment; for this is the

natural consequence of withdrawing protection. Now this, as we said, is no punishment but by accident: and so the State understood it; as we may collect, even from their manner of employing it as a punishment on offenders: for banishment is of universal use, with other punishments, in all societies. Now where withdrawing protection is inflicted as a punishment, the practice of all States hath been to retain their right to obedience from the banished member; though, according to the nature of the thing, considered alone, that right be really discharged; obedience and protection, as we observed, being reciprocal. But it was necessary all states should act in this manner when they inflicted exile as a punishment, it being no punishment but by accident, when the claim to subjection was remitted with it. They had a right to act thus; because it was inflicted on an offender; who by his very offence had forseited all claim of advantage from that reciprocal condition.

II. The second proposition is, that by the nature of civil government, the fanction of rewards could not be enforced by it: My reason is, because Society could neither distinguish the objects of its favour; nor reward them, though they were distinguished.

I. First, Society could not distinguish the objects of its favour. To instict punishment, there is no need of knowing the motives of the offender; but judicially to confer reward on the obedient, there is.

All that civil judicatures do in punishing is to find whether the act was wilfully committed. They enquire not into the intention or motives any further, or otherwise than as they are tne marks of a voluntary act: and having found it so, they concern themselves no more with the man's motives or principles of acting; but punish, without scruple, in considence of the offender's demerit. And this with very good reason; because no one of a sound mind, can be ignorant of the principal offences against right, or of the malignity of those offences, but by some sottish negligence which hath hindered his information; or some brutal passion which hath prejudiced

judiced his judgment; both which are highly faulty, and deserve civil punishment.

It is otherwise in rewarding abstinence from trangression. Here the motive must be considered; because as merely doing ill, i. e. without any particular bad motive, deserves punishment, a crime in the case of wrong judgment being ever necessarily inferred; so merely abstaining from ill, i. e. without any particular good motive, cannot, for that very reason, have any merit.

In judicially rewarding, therefore, the motives must be known, but human judicatures cannot know them but by accident: it is only that tribunal, which searches the heart, that can penetrate thus far. We conclude, therefore, that reward cannot, properly, be the sanction of human laws.

If it should be said, that though rewards cannot be equitably administred, as punishments may, yet, nothing hinders but that, for the good of Society, all who observe the laws should be rewarded, as all who transgress the laws are punished? The answer will lead us to the proof of the second part of this proposition.

2. That Society could not reward, though it should discover the objects of its favour; the reason is, because no Society can ever find a fund sufficient for that purpose, without raising it on the people as a tax, to pay it back to them as a reward.

But the universal practice of Society confirms this reasoning, and is explained by it; the fanction of punishments only having, in all ages and places, been employed to secure the observance of civil laws. This was so remarkable a fact, that it could not escape the notice of a certain admirable Wit and studious observer of men and manners; who speaks of it as an universal defect: Although we usually (says he) call reward and punishment the two binges, upon which all government turns, yet I could never observe this maxim to be put in practice by any nation except that of Lilliput\*. Thus he introduceth an account of the laws and customs of an Utopian Consti-

<sup>\*</sup> Gulliver's Travels, vol. i. p. 97.

tution of his own framing; and, for that matter, as good, perhaps, as any of the rest: and, had he intended it as a satire against such chimerical Commonwealths, nothing could have been more just. For all these political romancers, from *Plato* to this Author, make civil rewards and punishments the two binges of government.

I have often wondered what it was, that could lead them from fact, and universal practice, in so fundamental a point. But without doubt it was this: The defign of fuch fort of writings is to give a perfect pattern of civil Government; and to supply the fancied defects in real Societies. The end of government coming first under confideration; and the general practice of Society feeming to declare this end to be only, what in truth it is, fecurity to our temporal liberty and property; the simplicity of it displeased, and the plan appeared defective. They imagined, that, by enlarging the bottom, they should ennoble the structure; and, therefore, formed a romantic project of making civil Society ferve for all the good purposes it was even accidentally capable of producing. And thus, instead of giving us a true picture of civil Government, they jumbled together all forts of Societies into one; and confounded the religious, the literary, the mercantile, the convivial, with the CIVIL. Whoever reads them carefully, if indeed they be worth reading carefully, will find that the errors they abound in are all of this nature; and that they arise from the losing, or never having had, a true idea of the simple plan of civil Government: a circumstance which, as we have shewn elsewhere \*, hath occasioned many wrong judgments concerning it. No wonder, then, that this mirtake concerning the end of civil Society, drew after it others, concerning the means; and this, amongst the rest, that reward was one of the sanctions of human laws.

On the whole then, it appears, that civil Society hath not, in itself, the Sanction of rewards, to secure the observance of its laws. So true, in this sense likewise, is the observation of St. Paul, that

<sup>•</sup> See The Alliance between Church and State.

THE LAW WAS NOT MADE FOR THE RIGHTEOUS, BUT FOR THE UNRULY AND DISOBEDIENT.

But it being evident, that the joint sanctions of rewards and punishments are but just sufficient to secure the tolerable observance of Right (the mistaken opinion, that these are the two hinges of government, arising from that evidence) it follows, that, as religion only can supply the sanction of rewards, which society needs, and hath not; religion is absolutely necessary to civil government.

Thus, on the whole we see, I. That Society, by its own proper power, cannot provide for the observance of above one third part of moral duties; and of that third, but impersectly. We see likewise, how, by the peculiar influence of its nature, it enlarges the duty of the Citizen, at the same time that it lessens his natural ability to perform it.

II. We see, which is a thing of far greater consequence, that Society totally wants one of those two sanctions which are owned by all to be the necessary hinges on which government turns, and without which it cannot be supported.

To supply these wants and impersections, some other coactive power must be added, (which hath its insluence on the mind of man) to keep society from running back into consusion. But there is no other than the power of RELIGION; which, teaching an over-ruling Providence, the Rewarder of good men, and the Punisher of ill, can oblige to the duties of impersect obligation, which human laws overlook: and teaching also, that this Providence is omniscient, that it sees the most secret actions and intentions of men, and hath given laws for the persecting their nature, will oblige to those duties of persect obligation, which human laws cannot reach, or sufficiently enforce.

Thus have we explained in general the mutual aid, religion and civil policy lend to one another: not unlike that which two Allies, in the same quarrel, may reciprocally receive against a

common enemy: While one party is closely pressed, the other comes up to its relief; disengages the first; gives it time to rally and repair its force: By this time the assisting party is pushed in its turn, and needs the aid of that which it relieved; which is now at hand to repay the obligation. From henceforth the two parties act in conjunction, and, by that means, keep the common enemy at a stand.

Having thus proved the service of Religion in general, to Society; and shewn after what manner it is performed, we are enabled to proceed to the proof of the proposition in question: For by what hath been said, it appears that Religion doth this service solely, as it teacheth a Providence, the rewarder of good men, and the punisher of evil: so that although it were possible, as I think it is not \*, that there could be such a thing as a Religion not sounded on the doctrine of a Providence; yet, it is evident, such a Religion would be of no manner of use to Society. Whatsoever therefore is necessary for the support of this doctrine is mediately necessary for the well-being of Society. Now the doctrine of A FUTURE STATE of rewards and punishments is absolutely and indispensably necessary for the support of the general doctrine of providence, under its present dispensations in this life; as we shall now shew.

Religion establishing a Providence, the rewarder of virtue, and the punisher of vice, men naturally expect to find the constant and univocal marks of such an administration. But the history of mankind, nay even of every one's own neighbourhood, would soon inform the most indiligent observer, that the affairs of men wear a face of great irrregularity: the scene, that ever and anon presents itself, being of distressed virtue, and prosperous wickedness; which unavoidably brings the embarrassed Religionist to the necessity of giving up his belief, or finding out the solution of these untoward

<sup>\*</sup> St. Paul supposes there can no more be a Religion without a Providence, than without a God: He that cometh to God, must believe that he is, and that he is a rewarder of them that diligently seek him. Hebr. xi. 6.

appearances. His first reflexion might perhaps be with the poet \*:

omnia rebar

But, on second thoughts, Reason, that, from the admirable frame and harmony of the material universe, taught him that there must needs be a superintending Providence, to instruct that order which all its parts preserve, for the sake of the Whole, in their continued revolutions, would soon instruct him in the absurdity of supposing, that the same care did not extend to Man, a creature of a far nobler nature than the most considerable of inanimate beings. And therefore human affairs not being dispensed, at present, agreeably to that superintendence, he must conclude, that Man shall exist after death, and be brought to a future reckoning in another life, where all accounts will be set even, and all the present obscurities and perplexities in the ways of Providence unfolded and explained. From hence Religion acquires resistless force and splendor; and rises on a solid and unshaken basis +.

Vol. I. K Now

<sup>\*</sup> Claud.

<sup>†</sup> Hear an unexceptionable evidence to this whole matter: Et quidem (says the frecthinking Lord Herbert) præmium bonis, & supplicium malis, vel hac invita, vel post hanc vitam dari, statuebant Gentiles.—Nihil mage congruum naturæ divinæ esse docuerant, tum philosophorum, tum theologorum Gentilium præcipuorum scholæ, quam ut bona bonis, mala malis remetiretur Deus. Cætorum quum id quoque cernerent, quemadmodum viri boni calamitatibus miseriisque oppressi heic jacerent; mali improbique e contra lautitiis omnibus assuerent; certissimis ex justitia bonitateque divina argumentis deductis, bonis post hanc vitam præmium condignum, malis pænam dari credebant: secus enim si esset, nullam neque justitiæ neque bonitatis divinæ rationem constare posse. De religione Gentilium, cap. Præmium vel pæna.

Now this doctrine of a FUTURE STATE being the only support of Religion under the present and ordinary dispensations of providence, we conclude (which was what we had to prove) that the inculcating this doctrine is necessary to the well-being of Society.

That it was the general fentiment of mankind, we shall see hereafter; where it will be shewn, that there never was, in any time or place, a civilized People (the jewish only excepted) who did not found their Religion on this doctrine, as being conscious it could not be sustained without it. And as for the necessity of Religion itself to Society, the very enemies of all Religion are the loudest to confess it: For, from this apparent truth, the Atheist of old formed his famous argument against the divine origin of Religion; which makes fo great a figure in the common systems of infidelity. Here then, even on our adverfary's confession, we might rest our cause; but that we find (so inconstant and perverse is irreligion) fome modern Apologists for Atheism have abandoned the system of their predecessors, and chosen rather to give up an argument against the divine original of religion, than acknowledge the civil use of it; which with much frankness and confidence they have adventured to deny.

These therefore having endeavoured to cut away the very ground we stand upon, in proof of our proposition, it will be proper to examine their pretensions.

## SECT. III.

HE three great Advocates for this paradox are commonly reckoned Pomponatius, Cardan, and Bayle; who are put together, without distinction: whereas nothing is more certain than that, although Cardan and Bayle indeed defended it, Pomponatius was of a very different opinion: but Bayle had entered him into this service; and so great is Bayle's authority, that nobody perceived

the delusion. It will be but justice then to give *Pomponatius* a fair hearing, and let him speak for himself.

This learned Italian, a famous Peripatetic of the fifteenth century, wrote a treatise \* to prove that, on the principles of Aristotle, it could not be proved that the foul was immortal: But the doctrine of the mortality of the foul being generally thought to have very pernicious consequences, he conceived it lay upon him to fav fomething to that objection. In his xiiith chapter, therefore, he enumerates those consequences; and in the xivth, gives distinct anfwers to each of them. That which supposeth his doctrine to affect fociety, is expressed in these words: "Obj. 2. In the second place, 46 a man persuaded of the mortality of the soul ought in no case, es even in the most urgent, to prefer death to life: And so, forti-44 tude, which teaches us to despise death, and, when our coun-"try, or the public good requires, even to chuse it, would be no "more. Nor on such principles should we hazard life for a friend: "on the contrary, we should commit any wickedness rather than " undergo the loss of it: which is contrary to what Ariflotle teacheth "in his Ethics +." His reply to this, in the following chapter, is that virtue requires we should die for our country or our friends; and that virtue is never so perfect as when it brings no dower with it: But then he subjoins, "Philosophers, and the learned, only know

<sup>\*</sup> De Immortalitate Animæ, printed in 12mo, An. 1534. It is of him chiefly that the celebrated Melchior Canus seems to speak, in the following words: "Audivimus Italos quossam, qui suis & Aristoteli & Averroï tantum temporis dant, quantum facris literis ii, qui maximè facra doctrina delectantur; tantum vero sidei, quantum Apostolis & Evangelistis ii qui maximè sunt in Christi doctrinam religiosi. Ex quo nata sunt in Italia pestifera illa dogmata de mortalitate animi, & divina circa res humanas improvidentia, si verum est quod dicitur." Opera, l. x. c. 5. p. 446. Colon. 1605, 8vo.

<sup>†</sup> Secundò, quia stante animi humani mortalitate, homo in nullo casu, quantumcunque urgentissimo, deberet eligere mortem: & sic removeretur sortitudo, quæ præcipit contemnere mortem, & quod pro patria & bono publico debemus mortem eligere: neque pro amico deberemus exponere animam nostram; imo quodeunque seclus & nesas perpetrare magis quam mortem subire: quod est contra Arist. 3 Ethic, & 9 ejustdem. P. 99.

" what pleasures the practice of virtue can procure; and what mi-46 fery attends ignorance and vice:—but men not understanding the 44 excellence of virtue, and deformity of vice, would commit any " wickedness rather than submit to death: To bridle therefore their 44 unruly appetites, they were taught to be influenced by hope of " reward, and fear of punishment "."-This is enough to shew what Pomponatius thought of the necessity of Religion to the State. He gives up so much of the objection as urges the ill consequence of the doctrine of the mortality to mankind in general; but in so doing hath not betrayed the cause he undertook: which was to prove that the belief of the mortality of the foul would have no ill influence on the practice of a learned Peripatetic: he pretends not that it would have no evil influence on the gross body of mankind to the prejudice of Society. This appears from the nature and defign of the treatife; written entirely on peripatetic principles, to explain a point in that philosophy: by the force of which explanation, whoever was perfuaded of the mortality of the foul, must give his affent on those principles; principles only fitted to influence learned men. It was his business therefore to examine, what effects this belief would have on fuch, and on fuch only. And this, it must be owned, he hath done with dexterity enough. But that this belief would be most pernicious to the body of mankind in general, he confesses with all ingenuity. And as his own: words are the fullest proof that he thought with the rest of the world, concerning the influence of Religion, and particularly of the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, on Society, I shall beg leave to transcribe them at large. 66 fome men of so ingenuous and well framed a nature, that they

<sup>\*</sup> Soli enim philosophi & studiosi, ut dicit—Arist. 6 Ethic. sciunt quantam delectationem generent virtutes, & quantam miseriam ignorantia & vitia.—Sed quod hominesnon cognoscentes excellentiam virtutis & sæditatem vitii, omne scelus perpetrarent, priusquam mori: quare ad refrænandum diras hominum cupiditates, data est spes præmii-& timor punitionis. P. 119.

44 are brought to the practice of virtue from the fole confideration " of its dignity; and are kept from vice on the bare prospect of its 46 baseness: but such excellent persons are very rare. Others there " are of a somewhat less heroic turn of mind; and these, besides " the dignity of virtue, and the baseness of vice, are worked upon " by fame and honours, by infamy and difgrace, to shun evil and " persevere in good: These are of the second class of men. Others " again are kept in order by the hope of some real benefit, or the "dread of corporal punishment; wherefore that such may follow 45 virtue, the Politician hath contrived to allure them by dignities, " possessions, and things of the like nature; inslicting mulcts, deer gradations, mutilations, and capital punishments, to deter them 44 from wickednefs. There are yet others of so intractable and 45 perverse a spirit, that nothing even of this can move them, as "daily experience shews; for these, therefore, it was, that the 66 Politician invented the doctrine of a future flate; where eternal re-44 wards are referved for the virtuous, and eternal punishments, 46 which have the more powerful influence of the two, for the " wicked. For the greater part of those who live well, do so, " rather for fear of the punishment, than out of appetite to the " reward: for mifery is better known to man, than that immea-46 furable good which Religion promifeth: And therefore as this " last contrivance may be directed to promote the welfare of men: of all conditions and degrees, the Legislator, intent on public " good, and feeing a general propenfity to evil, established the " doctrine of the IMMORTALITY OF THE SOUL. Little folicitous for et truth, in all this, but intent only on utility, that he might draw 46 mankind to virtue. Nor is he to be blamed: for as the physician-46 deceives his patient in order to restore his health, so the lawgiver 46 invents apologues to form the manners of his people. Indeed " were all of that noble turn of mind with those enumerated under 46 the first class, then would they all, even on the supposition of " the foul's mortality, exactly perform their mutual duties to one 44 another

"another. But as there are, upon the matter, none of this disposition, he must, of necessity, have recourse to arts, more sitted to the general disposition."

After all this, it is surprizing that Mr. Bayle should so far mistake this book, as to imagine the author argues in it against the usefulness of religion to society: especially, when we consider that Mr. Bayle appears to have examined the book so nearly as to be able to confute a common error concerning it, namely, that it was wrote to prove the mortality of the soul: Whereas he shews, that it was wrote only to prove, that, on the principles of Aristotle, ueither that, nor the contrary, could be demonstrated. But let us hear him; "That which Pomponatius hath replied to the reasoning borrowed from hence, that the doctrine of the mortality of the foul would invite men to all sort of crimes, deserves to be con-

\* Aliqui funt homines ingenui, & bene institutæ naturæ, adeo quod ad virtutem inducuntur ex sola virtutis nobilitate, & a vitio retrahuntur ex sola ejus sæditate: & hi optime dispositi sunt, licet perpauci sunt. Aliqui vero sunt minus bene dispositi; & hi præter nobilitatem virtutis, & fæditatem vitii, ex præmiis, laudibus, & honoribus; ex pœnis, vituperiis, & infamia, studiosa operantur, & vitia fugiunt: & hi in secundo gradu funt. Aliqui vero propter spem alicujus boni, & timore pænæ corporalis studiosi efficiuntur: quare, ut tales virtutem consequantur, statuunt politici vel aurum, vel dignitatem, vel aliquid tale; ut vitia vero fugiant, statuunt vel in pecunia, vel in honore, vel. in corpore, seu mutilando membrum, seu occidendo puniri. Quidam vero ex serocitate & perversitate naturze, nullo horum moventur, ut quotidiana docet experientia; ideo posuerunt virtuosis in alia vita præmia æterna, vitiosis vero æterna damna, quæ maxime terrerent: majorque pars hominum, fi bonum operatur, magis ex metu æterni damni quam fpe æterni boni operatur bonum, cum damna funt magis nobis cognita, quam illa bona æterna: & quoniam hoc ultimum ingenium omnibus hominibus petest prodesse, cujuscunque gradus fint, respiciens legislator pronitatem viarum ad malum, intendens communi bono, sanxit animam esse immortalem, non curans de veritate, sed tantum de probitate, ut inducat homines ad virtutem. Neque accusandus est politicus: sicut namque medicus multa fingit, ut ægro fanitatem restituat; sie politicus apologos format, ut cives recliscet.-S onnes homines effent in illo primo gradu enumerato, stante etiam animorum mortalitate, studiosi fierent; sed quasi nulli funt illius dispositionis; quare aliis ingeniis incedere necesse fuit .- Pag. 123, 124, 125.

ss fiderect

"fidered "." And then he produces those arguments of Pomponatius, which we have given above, of the natural excellence of virtue, and deformity of vice; that happiness confiss in the practice of the one, and misery in that of the other, &c. These he calls poor solutions: Indeed poor enough, had it been, as Mr. Bayle supposes, Pomponatius's design to prove that the doctrine of the mortality of the foul did not invite the generality of men to wickedness: for the account given by Pomponatius himself of the origin of the contrary doctrine, shews, that, but for this, they would have run headlong into vice, But supposing the Peripatetic's design to be, as indeed it was, to prove that the doctrine of the mortality would bave no ill influence on the learned followers of Ariflotle, then these arguments, which Mr. Bayle calls poor ones, will be found to have their weight. But he goes on, and tells us, that Pomponatius brings a better argument from fact, where he takes notice of several, who denied the immortality of the foul, and yet lived as well as their believing neighbours. This is indeed a good argument to the purpose, for which it is employed by Pomponatius; but whether it be so to that, for which, Mr. Bayle imagined, he employed it, shall be confidered hereafter, when we come to meet with it again in this later writer's apology for atheism. But Mr. Bayle was so full of his own favourite question, that he did not give due attention to Pomponatius's; and having, as I observed above, refuted a vulgar error with regard to this famous tract, and imagining that the impiety, fo generally charged on it, was folely founded in that error, he goes on infulting the enemies of Pomponatius in this manner: " If the charge of impiety, of which Pomponatius hath been accused, was only founded on his book of the immortality of the foul, we must needs say there was never any accusation more 46 impertinent or a stronger instance of the iniquitous perversity of

<sup>\*</sup> Ce que Pomponace a repondu à la raison empruntée de ce que le dogme de la mortalité de l'ame porteroit les hommes à toutes sortes de crimes, est digne de consideration. Dist. Hist. & Crit. Art. Pomponace, Rem. (H.)

"the perfecutors of the philosophers \*." But Pomponatius will not be so easily set clear: For let him think as he would concerning the soul, yet the account he gives of the origin of Religion, as the contrivance of statesmen, here produced, from this very tract De inunortalitate animæ, is so highly impious, that his enemies will be hardly persuaded to give it a softer name than downright atheism. Nor is it impiety in general, of which, we endeavour to acquit him, but only that species of it, which teaches that Religion is use-less to Society. And this we think we have done; although it be by shewing him to have run into the opposite extreme, which would infinuate it was the creature of politicks.

Cardan comes next to be considered: and him nobody hath injured. He, too, is under Bayle's delusion, concerning Pomponatius: For, writing on the same subject +, he borrows the Peripatetic's arguments to prove that Religion was even pernicious to Society. This was so bold a stroke, that Mr. Bayle, who generally follows him pretty closely, drops him here: Nor do I know that he ever had a second, except it was the unhappy philosopher of Malmsbury; who, scorning to argue upon the matter, imperiously pronounced, that he who presumed to propagate Religion in a Society, without leave of the Magistrate, was guilty of the crime of Lese Majesty, as introducing a power superior to the Leviathan's. But it would be unpardonable to keep the reader much longer on this poor lunatic Italian, in whom, as Mr. Bayle pleasantly observes, sense was, at best, but an appendix to his folly ‡. Besides, there is little in that tract,

<sup>\*</sup> Si l'on n'a fondé les impietez, dont on l'accuse, que sur son livre de l'immertalité de l'ame, il n'y eut jamais d'accusation plus impertinente, que celle-la, ni qui soit une marque plus expresse de l'entetement inique des persecuteurs des philosophes.

<sup>†</sup> De immortalitate animorum liber, Lugd. ap. Gryph. 1545; et Opera omnia, fol. Lugduni, 1663, Tom. II. p. 458.

<sup>†</sup> The charming picture he draws of himself, and which he excuses no otherwise than by laying the sault on his stars, will hardly prejudice any one in savour of his opinions. How sat it resembles any other of the brotherhood, they best know, who have examined

tract, but what he stole from Pomponatius; the strength of which, to support Cardan's paradox, hath been considered already; or what Mr. Bayle hath borrowed from him; the force of which shall be confidered hereafter: But that little is so peculiarly his own, that as no other can claim the property, so no one hath hitherto usurped the use. Which yet, however, is remarkable: for there is no trash so worthless, but what some time or other finds a place in a Freethinker's system. We will not despair then but that this paltry subbish may one day or other have an honourable station in some of these fashionable fabricks. And, not to hinder its speedy preferment, I shall here give it the reader in its full force, without anfwer or reply. He brings the following argument to prove that the doctrine of the immortality of the foul is even destructive to society;-- "From this flattering notion of a FUTURE STATE, ill 44 men get opportunity to compass their wicked deligns: and, on 46 the same account, good men suffer themselves to be injuriously "treated. Civil laws, relying on this fanciful affistance, relax their " necessary severity; and thus is the opinion productive of much 46 mischief to mankind \*." And then, by another argument as good, he shews the benefits accruing to the state from the belief of the foul's mortality: "Those who maintain that the foul dies with "the body, must needs be, by their principles, honester men than 46 others, because they have a peculiar interest in preserving their re-" putation; this being the only future property they pretend to:

the genius of modern infidelity. However, thus he speaks of his own amiable turn of mind: "In diem viventem, nugacem, religionis contemptorem, injuriæ illatæ memorem, i invidum, tristem, insidiatorem, proditorem, magum, incantatorem, suorum osorem, turpi libidini deditum, solitarium, inamænum, austerum; sponte etiam divinantem, te zelotypum, obscænum, lascivum, maledicum, varium, ancipitem, impurum, caluminatorem, &c." We have had many Free-thinkers, but sew such Free-speakers. But though these sort of writers are not used to give us so direct a picture of themselves, yet it hath been observed, that they have unawares copied from their own tempers, in the ungracious drawings they have made of Human Nature and Religion.

<sup>\*</sup> De immortalitate animorum, cap. ii.

"And the Profession of the Soul's mortality being generally esteemed as scandalous as that of usury, such men will be most exact and scrupulous in point of honour, as your usurer, to keep up the credit of his calling, is of all men the most religious observer of his word \*."

## SECT. IV.

R. BAYLE, the last supporter of this paradox, is of a very different character from these Italian Sophists: A writer, who, to the utmost strength and clearness of reasoning, hath added all the liveliness, and delicacy of wit: who, pervading human nature at his ease, struck into the province of PARADOX, as an exercise for the unwearied vigour of his mind: who, with a soul superior to the sharpest attacks of fortune, and a heart practised to the best philosophy, had not yet enough of real greatness to overcome that last soible of superior minds, the temptation of honour, which the ACADEMIC EXERCISE OF WIT is conceived to bring to its professors.

A writer of this character will deserve a particular regard: for paradoxes, which in the hands of a Toland or a Tindal end in rank offensive impiety, will, under the management of a BAYLE, always afford something for use or curiosity: Thus, in the very work we are about to examine +, the many admirable observations on the nature and genius of polytheism, happen to be a full answer to all which the Author of Christianity as old as the Creation hath advanced against the use of revelation. For a skilful chemist, though disappointed in his grand magisterium, yet often discovers, by the way, some useful and noble medicament; while the ignorant pretender to the art, not only loses his labour, but fills all about him with the poisonous steams of sublimate.

The

<sup>\*</sup> Cap. xxxiii. ejuid. tract.

<sup>†</sup> Pensées diverses, ecrites à un docteur de Sorbonne à l'occasion de la comete qui parût au mois de Decembre, 1680. &-Continuation des Pensées diverses, &c. ou Reponse à plusieurs dissicultez, &c.

The professed design of Mr. Bayle's work is to enquire, which is least burtful to mankind, ancient idolatry, or modern atheism: And had he confined himself to that subject, we had had no concern with him, but should have lest him in the hands of Mess. Jacquelot and Bernard. I freely own they are both stark naught: All the difference is, that Atheism directly excludes and destroys the true sense of moral right and wrong; and Polytheism sets up a salse species of it.

But the more particular, though less avowed, purpose of this elaborate treatise is to prove, that Atheism is not destructive of Society; and here he falls under our notice; no distinct answer, that I know of, having been yet attempted to this part of his performance.

His arguments in support of this Paradox, are occasionally, and so without any method, interspersed throughout that large work: But, to give them all the advantage they are capable of, I have here collected and disposed them in such order, that they mutually support, and come in to the aid of one another.

It had been generally esteemed a proof of the destructive nature of Atheisin to Society, that this principle excludes the knowledge of moral good and evil; such knowledge being, as will be seen, posterior to the knowledge of a God. His first argument therefore for the innocence of Atheism is,

I. "That an Atheist may have an idea of the moral difference, between good and evil, because Atheists, as well as Theists, may comprehend the first principles of morals and metaphysics, from which this difference may be deduced. And in fact (he says) both the Epicurean atheist, who denied the providence of God, and the Stratonic atheist, who denied his Being, had this idea \*."

This often repeated argument is so loosely expressed, that it is capable of many meanings; in some of which the assertion is true, but not to the purpose; in others to the purpose, but not true.

<sup>\*</sup> Voicz les Pensées diverses, cap. clxxviii. & suiv. & l'addition à ces Pensées cap. vv. Reponse à la 10 & à la 13 objections, & la Continuation des Pens, div. cap. exliii.

Therefore before any precise answer can be given to it, it will be necessary to trace up moral duty to its first principles. And though an enquiry of this fort should not prove the most amusing either to myself or my reader, it may be found however to deserve our pains. For a spirit of dispute and resinement hath so entangled and consounded all our conclusions on a subject, in itself, very clear and intelligible, that I am persuaded, were MORALITY herself, of which the ancients made a Goddess, to appear in person amongst men, and be questioned concerning her birth, she would be tempted to answer as Homer does in Lucian, that her commentators had so learnedly embarrassed the dispute, that she was now as much at a loss as They to account for her original.

To proceed therefore with all possible brevity: Each animal hath its instinct implanted by nature to direct it to its greatest good. Amongst these, man hath his; to which modern philosophers have given the name of

- 1. The MORAL SENSE: whereby we conceive and feel a pleasure in right, and a distaste and aversion to wrong, prior to all reflexion on their natures, or their consequences. This is the first inlet to the adequate idea of morality; and plainly, the most extensive of all; the Atheist as well as Theist having it. When instinct had gone thus far,
- 2. The reasoning faculty improved upon its dictates: For, men led by reflexion to examine the foundation of this moral sense, soon discovered that there were real essential differences in the qualities of human actions, established by nature; and, consequently, that the love and hatred excited by the moral sense were not capricious in their operations; for, that in the essential properties of their objects there was a specific difference. Reason having gone thus far (and thus far too it might conduct the Stratonic atheist) it stopped; and saw that something was still wanting whereon to establish the MORALITY, properly so called, of actions, that is, an obligation on men to perform some, and to avoid others; and that,

that, to find this fomething, there was need of calling in other principles to its affiftance: Because nothing can thus oblige but,

3. A fuperior WILL: And fuch a will could not be found till the being and attributes of God were established; but was discovered with them.

Hence arose, and only from hence, a MORAL DIFFERENCE. From this time human actions became the subject of obligation, and not till now: For though INSTINCT felt a difference in actions; and REASON discovered that this difference was founded in the nature of things; yet it was WILL only which could make a compliance with that difference a DUTY.

On these three Principles therefore, namely the moral sense, the essential difference in human actions, and the will of God, is built the whole edifice of practical morality: Each of which hath its distinct motive to enforce it; Compliance with the moral sense exciting a pleasurable sensation; compliance with the essential differences of things promoting the order and harmony of the universe; and compliance with the will of God obtaining an abundant reward.

This, when attentively considered, can never fail of affecting us with the most lively sense of God's goodness to Mankind, who, graciously respecting the imbecillity of Man's nature, the slowness of his reason, and the violence of his possions, hath been pleased to afford three different excitements to the practice of Virtue; that men of all ranks, constitutions, and educations, might find their account in one or other of them; fomething that would hit their palate, satisfy their reason, or subdue their will. The first principle, which is the moral fense, would strongly operate on those, who, by the exact temperature and balance of the passions, were disengaged enough to feel the delicacy of it's charms; and have an elegance of mind to respect the nobleness of its dictates. The second, which is the effential difference, will have its weight with the speculative, the abstract and profound reasoners, and on all those who excel in the knowledge of human nature. And the third, which resolves itself into the will of God, and takes in all

the consequences of obedience and disobedience, is principally adapted to the great body of Mankind.

It may perhaps be objected, to what is here delivered, that the true principle of morality should have the worthinst motive to enforce it: Whereas the Will of God is enforced by the view of rewards and punishments; on which motive, virtue bath the small st merit. This character of the true principle of morality is perfectly right; and agrees, we say, with the principle which we make to be the true: For the legitimate motive to virtue, on that principle, is compliance with the Will of God; a compliance which hath the highest degree of merit. But this not being found of sufficient power to take in the Generality, the consequences of compliance or non-compliance to this Will, as far as relates to rewards and punishments, were first drawn out to the people's view. In which they were dealt with as the teachers of mathematics treat their pupils; when, to engage them in a sublime demonstration, they explain to them the use and fertility of the theorem.

To these great purposes serve the THREE PRINCIPLES while in conjunction: But now, as in the civil world and the affairs of men, our pleasure, in contemplating the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is often disturbed and checked by the view of some human perversity or folly which runs across that Dispensation; so it is here, in the intellectual. This admirable provision for the support of virtue hath been, in great measure, deseated by its pretended advocates; who, in their eternal squabbles about the true soundation of morality, and the obligation to its practice, have sacrilegiously untwisted this THREEFOLD CORD; and each running away with the part he esteemed the strongest, hath affixed that to the throne of God, as the golden chain that is to unite and draw all unto it.

This man proposes to illustrate the doctrine of the MORAL SENSE; and then the morality of actions is founded only in that sense: with him, metaphysics and logic, by which the essential difference, in human actions, is demonstrated, are nothing but words, notions, wistons; the empty regions and stadews of philosophy. The professors

of them are moon-blind wits; and Locke himself is treated as a school-man\*. To talk of reward and punishment, consequent on the will of a superior, is to make the practice of virtue mercenary and servile; from which, pure human nature is the most abhorrent.

Another undertakes to demonstrate THE ESSENTIAL DIFFERENCES of things, and their natural fitness and unfitness to certain ends: and then morality is folely founded on those differences; and God and his Will have nothing to do in the matter. Then the Will of God cannot make any thing morally good and evil, just and unjust; nor consequently be the cause of any obligation on moral Agents: because the essences and natures of things, which constitute actions good and evil, are independent on that Will; which is forced to submit to their relations like weak Man's. And therefore, if there were no natural justice; that is, if the rational and intellectual nature were, of itself, undetermined and unobliged to any thing, and so destitute of morality properly so called, it were not possible that any thing should be made morally good or evil, obligatory or unlawful, or that any moral obligation should be begotten by any Will or positive command whatsoever.—And then our knowledge of moral good and evil is folely acquired by abstract reafoning: And to talk of its coming any other way into the mind, is weak and superstitious, as making God act unnecessarily and superfluously.

A third, who proposes to place morality on the will of a superior, which is its true bottom, acts yet on the same exterminating model. He takes the other two Principles to be merely visionary: The moral sense is nothing but the impression of education; the love of the species romantic; and invented by crasty knaves, to dupe the young, the vain, and the ambitious. Nature, he saith, hath confined us to the narrow sphere of self-love; and our most pompous pretences of pure disinterestedness, but the more artful disguise of

that very passion. He not only denies all moral difference in actions, antecedent to the Will of God, which (as we shall shew anon) he might well do; but likewise, all specific difference: will not so much as allow it to be a RULE to direct us to the performance of God's will; for that the notions of sit and unsit proceed not from that difference, but from the arbitrary impositions of Will only; that God is the free cause of Truths as well as Beings; and then, confequently, if he so wills, two and two would not make sour. At length his system shrinks into a vile and abject selfishness; and, as he degrades and contracts his nature, he slips, before he is aware, quite besides his foundation, which he professes to be the Will of God.

Thus have men, borne away by a fondness to their own idle fystems, presumptuously broken in upon that TRIPLE BARRIER\*, with which God has been graciously pleased to cover and secure Virtue; and given advantage to the cavils of Libertines and Insidels; who on each of these three Principles, thus advanced on the ruins of the other two, have reciprocally forged a scheme of Religion independent on Morality; and a scheme of Morality independent

<sup>†</sup> See The Fable of the Bees, and confer the enquiry-into the original of Moral virtue, and the jearch into the nature of society, with the body of the book.

on Religion \*; who, how different soever their employments may appear, are indeed but twisting the same rope at different ends: the plain design of both being to overthrow RELIGION. But as the Moralist's is the more plausible scheme, it is now become most in fashion: So that of late years a deluge of moral systems hath over-slowed the learned world, in which either the moral sense, or the essential difference, rides alone triumphant; which like the chorus of clouds in Aristophanes, the Aśraos Nepédaus, the ETERNAL RELATIONS, are introduced into the scene, with a gaudy outside, to supplant Jupiter, and to teach the arts of fraud and sophistry; but in a little time betray themselves to be empty, obscure, noisy, impious Nothings.

In a word, with regard to the several sorts of Separatists, those, I mean, who are indeed friends to Religion, and who detest the Insidel's abuse of their principles, I would recommend to their interpretation the following oracle of an ancient sage. OT TAP ESTIN ETPEIN THE ΔΙΚΑΙΟΣΥΝΗΣ ΑΛΛΗΝ ΑΡΧΗΝ ΟΤΔΕ ΑΛΛΗΝ ΓΕΝΕΣΙΝ, Η THN ΕΚ ΤΟΥ ΔΙΟΣ ΚΑΙ ΤΗΣ ΚΟΙΝΗΣ ΦΥΣΕΩΣ.

This noble truth, that the only true foundation and original of morality is the Will of God interpreted by the moral sense and essential disference of things, was a random thought of Chrysppus the Stoic. I give it this term, 1. Because the ancient philosophy teaches nothing certain concerning the true ground of moral obligation.

2. Because Plutarch's quoting it amongst the repugnances of the Stoics, shews it to be inconsistent with their other doctrine. And indeed, the following the ancient philosophers too servilely, hath occasioned the errors of modern moralists, in unnaturally separating the three principles of practical morality, Plato being the patron of the moral sense; Aristotle of the essential differences; and Zeno of arbitrary will.

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<sup>\*</sup> See the fourth Treatife of the Characteristics, intituled, "An Enquiry concerning Virtue and Merit,"

And now, to come more directly to our Adversary's argument: We say then,

- 1. That the Atheist can never come to the knowledge of the MORALITY of actions properly so called.
- 2. That though he be capable of being affected with the moral fense, and may arrive to the knowledge of the real essential differences in the qualities of human actions; yet this sense and these differences make nothing for the purpose of Mr. Bayle's argument: because these, even in conjunction, are totally insufficient to influence society in the practice of virtue: which influence is the thing in question.

Both these conclusions, I presume, have been clearly proved from what hath been said above, of the origin of Society; and, just before, of the foundation of moral virtue: But that nothing may be wanting to the argument, I shall crave leave to examine the matter with a little more exactness.

1. And first, that an Atheist, as such, can never arrive to the knowledge of the morality of actions properly so called, shall be further made good against the reasoning which Mr. Bayle brings to prove, that the Morality of buman actions may be demonstrated on the principles of a Stratonicean, or atheistic Fatalist; whom he personates in this manner: "The beauty, symmetry, regularity, and order, seen in the universe, are the effects of a blind unintelligent Nature; and though this Nature, in her workmanship, hath copied after no ideas, she hath nevertheless produced an infinite number of feccies, with each its distinct essential attribute. It is not in consequence of our opinion, that fire and water differ in species, and that there is a like difference between love and hatred, affirmation and negation. Their specific difference is founded in the nature of the things themselves. But how do we know

<sup>\*</sup> La beauté, la symétrie, la regularité, l'ordre que l'on voit dans l'univers, sont l'ouvrage d'une nature qui n'a point de connoissance, & qu'encore, &c. Contin. des Pensées diverses, c. cli.

"this? Is it not by comparing the effential properties of one of 46 these beings with the essential properties of another of them? 61 But we know, by the same way, that there is a specific difference 66 between truth and falshood, between good faith and perfidious-" ness, between gratitude and ingratitude, &c. We may then be 44 assured, that vice and virtue differ specifically by their nature, "independent of our opinion." This, Mr. Bayle calls their being naturally separated from each other: And thus much we allow. He goes on: "Let " us fee now by what ways Stratonic atheists " may come to the knowledge of vice and virtue's being morally " as well as naturally separated. They ascribe to the same necessity " of nature the establishment of those relations which we find to 66 be between things, and the establishment of those rules by "which we distinguish those relations. There are rules of rea-" foning independent of the will of man: It is not because men " have been pleased to fix the rules of syllogism, that therefore "those rules are just and true: they are so in themselves, and all "the endeavours of the wit of man against their essence and their " attributes would be vain and ridiculous." This likewife we grant him. He proceeds: "If then there are certain and immutable " rules for the operation of the understanding, there are also such " for the determinations of the will." But this we deny. would prove it thus: "The + rules of these determinations are not " altogether arbitrary; fome of them proceed from the necessity of " nature; and these impose an indispensable obligation. The most " general of these rules is this, that man ought to will what is most " conformable to right reason: For there is no truth more evident "than this, that it is fit a reasonable creature should conform to " right reason, and unfit that such a creature should recede from it."

<sup>\*</sup> Voions comment ils pouvoient savoir qu'elles etoient outre cela separces moralement. Ils attribuoient, &c. Idem ibid.

<sup>†</sup> Les regles de ces actes-là ne sont pas toutes arbitraires: il y en a qui emanent, &c. Idem ibid.

This is his argument. To which I reply, that from thence, no moral difference can arise. He contends that things are both naturally and morally separable. He speaks of these ideas as very different (as indeed they are) and proves the truth of them by different arguments. The natural essential difference of things then, if we mean any thing by the terms, hath this apparent property; that it creates a sitness in the agent to act agreeably thereto: As the moral difference of things creates, besides this sitness, an obligation likewise: When therefore there is an obligation in the agent, there is a moral difference in the things, and so on the contrary, for they are inseparable. If then we shew, that right reason alone cannot properly oblige, it will follow that the knowledge of what is agreeable to right reason doth not induce a moral difference: Or that a Stratonicean is not under any obligation to act agreeably to right reason; which is the thing Mr. Bayle contends for.

1. Obligation, necessarily implies an Obliger: The Obliger must be different from, and not one and the same with, the obliged: To make a man at once the Obliger and obliged, is the same thing as to make him treat or enter into compact with himself, which is the highest of absurdities. For it is an unquestioned rule in law and reason, that whoever acquires a right to any thing from the obligation of another towards him, may relinquish that right. If therefore the Obliger and obliged be one and the same person, in that case all obligation must be void of course; or rather no obligation would have commenced. Yet the Stratonic atheist is guilty of this absurdity, when he talks of actions being moral or obligatory. For what Being can be found whereon to place this obligation? Will he say right reason? But that is the very absurdity we complain of; because reason is only an attribute of the person obliged, .his affistant to judge of his obligations, if he hath any from another Being: To make this then the Obliger, is to make a man oblige himself. If he say, he means by reason not every man's particular reason, but reason in general; I reply, that this reason is

- a mere abstract notion, which hath no real subsistence: and how that which hath no real subsistence should oblige, is still more difficult to apprehend.
- 2. But farther, moral obligation, that is, the obligation of a free agent, implies a Law, which enjoins and forbids; but a Law is the imposition of an intelligent superior, who hath power to exact conformity thereunto. But blind unintelligent Nature is no lawgiver, nor can what proceeds necessarily from thence come under the notion of a Law: We say indeed, in common speech, the law of necessity, and the law of reason and nature; but these are merely popular expressions: By the first, we mean only to insinuate, that necessity hath, as it were, one property of a law, namely that of forcing; and by the second, we mean the rule which the supreme Lawgiver hath laid down for the judging of his Will. And while this light and direction of reason or nature is considered as a rule only, given by the God of nature, the term may be allowed: Those who so considered the term were the first who so used it. Afterwriters retained the name; but, by a strange absurdity, separated the Law-giver from his Law; on a fancy of its being of virtue to oblige by its own intrinsic excellence, or by the good of which it is productive. But how any thing except a Law, in the proper philosophic sense, can oblige a dependent reasonable Being endued with will, is utterly inconceivable. The fundamental error in Mr. Bayle's argument seems to be this: He saw the essential difference of things; he found those differences the adequate object of the understanding; and so too hastily concluded them to be the adequate object of the will likewise. In this he was mistaken: they are indeed the adequate object of the understanding; because the understanding is pasfive in its perceptions, and therefore under the fole direction of these necessary differences. But the will is not passive in its determinations: for instance, that three are less than five, the understanding is necessitated to judge, but the will is not necessitated to chuse five before three: Therefore the effential differences of things are not the adequate

adequate object of the will; the Law of a Superior must be taken in to constitute obligation in choice, or morality in actions.

Hobbes seems to have penetrated farther into this matter, than the Stratonicean of Mr. Bayle; he appeared to have been sensible that morality implied obligation, and obligation a law, and a law a Lawgiver: Therefore, having (as they say) expelled the Legislator of the universe, that morality of actions might have some foundation, he thought sit to underprop it with his earthly God, the Leviatban; and to make him the creator and supporter of moral right and wrong.

But a favourer of Mr. Bayle's paradox may perhaps object, that as he was allowed a fitness, and unfitness in actions, discoverable by the effential difference of things; and as this fitness and unfitness implies benefit and damage to the actor, and others; it being in fact feen, that the practice of virtue promotes the happiness of the Individual, or at least of the Species, and that vice obstructs it; it may be faid, that this will be sufficient to make morality, or obligation, in the Stratonic system; if not in the strict sense of the word, yet as to the nature of the thing. To this I reply, that in that System, whatever advanced human happiness, would be only a natural good; and virtue as merely such, as food and covering: and, that which retarded it, a natural evil, whether it was vice, pestilence, or unkindly seasons. Natural, I say, in contradistinction to moral, or fuch a good as any one would be obliged to feek or promote. For 'till it be made appear that Man hath received his being from the will of another; and so depending on that other, is accountable to him for it; he can be under no moral obligation to prefer good to evil, or even life to death. From the nature of any action, MORA-LITY cannot arise; nor from its effects: Not from the first, because, being only reasonable or unreasonable, nothing follows but a fitness in doing one, and an absurdity in doing the other: Not from the fecond, because, did the good or evil produced make the action moral, brutes, from whose actions proceed both good and evil, would have morality.

If it be farther urged, that the observance of these essential differences is promoting the perfection of a particular system, which contributes, in its concentration, to the perfection of the universe; and that therefore a reasonable creature is OBLIGED to conform thereto: I answer, first, that (on the principles before laid down) to make a reasonable creature obliged in this case, he must first be enforced by the Whole, of which he is part. This enforcement cannot here be by intentional command, whose object is free agency. because the Stratonic Whole, or universal Nature, is blind and unintelligible. It must force then by the necessity of its nature; and this will, indeed, make men obliged as clocks are by weights, but never as free agents are, by the command of an intelligent Superior, which only can make actions moral. But fecondly, an uniform perfect Whole can never be the effect of blind fate; but is the plain image and impression of one intelligent self-existent Mind. In a word, as it is of the nature of the independent first Cause of all things to be obliged only by his own wifdom; so it seems to be of the nature of all dependent intelligent beings to be obliged only by the will of the first Cause.

"All things therefore (fays the great Master of reason) do work, after a fort, according to Law: All other things according to a "LAW, whereof, some SUPERIOR, to whom they are subject, is "Author; only the works and operations of God have him both "for their worker, and for the Law whereby they are wrought. "The Being of God is a kind of Law to his working; for that per"fection which God is giveth perfection to that he DOTH "."

Nor does this contradict what we have afferted, and not only afferted, but proved, in speaking of moral obligation, that nothing, but Will, can oblige: Because our whole reasoning is consined to man's obligation. And if there be any thing certain, in the first principles of law or reason, this must be confessed to be of the number, that a man can neither oblige himself, nor be obliged by names

<sup>\*</sup> Hooker's Ecel. Pol. B. I. Sect. 2. p. 3. circa finem.

and notions; so that, to create an obligation, the Will of some other being must be found out. A principle, which the common conceptions of man, and the universal practice of human life confirms. But, as in our discourse of God, the weakness of our intellects conthrains us to explain our conceptions of his nature by human ideas, therefore when we speak of the morality of bis actions, finding them to be founded in no other, or superior Will, we say, he is obliged only by his own wildom: Obligation, when applied to God, meaning no more than direction: for, that an independent being can be subject to obligation in the sense that a dependent being is subject, is, by the very terms, an high abfurdity. Obligation, therefore, when applied to man, being one thing; when applied to God another; the strictest rules of logic will allow different attributes to be predicated of each. It is confessed, we have a clear and adequate idea of obligation, as it relates to man; of this obligation, we have affirmed fomething plain and evident: It is likewise confessed we have a very obscure and inadequate idea of obligation, as it relates to God: of this obligation, too, we have affirmed fomething, whose evidence must needs partake of the imperfection of its subject. Yet there have been found Objectors so perverse, who would not only have clear conceptions regulated on obscure; but what is simply predicated of God, to destroy what hath been proved of man.

But to fet this matter in a fuller light, I will just mention two objections (not peculiar to the Stratoniceans) against morality's being founded in will.

Obj. 1. It is said, "That, as every creature necessarily pursues "happiness, it is that which obliges to moral observance, and not "the Will of God; because it is to procure happiness that we obey command, and do every other act: and because, if that Will commanded us to do what would make us unhappy, we should be forced to disobey it." To this I answer, that when it is said marality is founded on Will, it is not meant that every Will obliges, but that nothing but Will can oblige. It is plain the Will of an inferior

inferior or equal cannot be meant by it \*: It is not simply Will then, but Will so and so circumstanced: And why it is not as much Will which obliges, when it is the Will of a superior seeking our good, as the Will of a superior simply, I am yet to learn. To say then that happiness and not Will makes the obligation, seems like saying, that when in mechanics a weight is raised by an engine, the wheels and pullies are not the cause, but that universal affection of matter called attraction. Obj. 2. If it be still urged, that one can no more be called the obliger than the other; because though happiness could not oblige without Will, on the other hand, Will could not oblige without happiness; I reply, this is a mistake. Will could not indeed oblige to unhappiness; but it would oblige to what should produce neither one nor the other, though all considerations of the consequence of obeying or disobeying were away.

Obj. 3. It is said, "That if, according to the modern notions of "philosophy, the will of God be determined by the eternal relations of "things, they are properly those relations (as Dr. Clarke would have "it) which oblige, and not the will of God. For if A impel B; and "B, C, and C, D; it is A and not C that properly impels D." But here I suspect the objection consounds natural cause and effect with moral agent and patient; which are two distinct things, as appears, as on many other accounts, so from their effects; the one implying natural necessity, the other, only moral sitness. Thus, in the case before us, the eternal relations are, if you will, the natural cause, but the will of God is the moral agency: And our question is, not of natural necessity that results from the former, but, of moral sitness that results from the latter. Thus that which is not properly the natural cause of my acting, is the moral cause of it. And so on the contrary.

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<sup>4 &</sup>quot;Whence comes the restraint [of the Law of Nature]? From a higher Power; to nothing else can bind. I cannot bind my selse, for I may untie my selse again; nor in a equal cannot bind me, for we may untie one another. It must be a superior power, even God Almighty." Selden's Table Talk, art. Law of Nature.

On the whole, then, it appears, that Will, and Will only, can constitute obligation; and, consequently, make actions moral, i. e. such as deserve reward and punishment. Yet when men restect on the affections of their own minds, and find there a sense of right and wrong so strongly impressed as to be attended with a consciousness that the one deserves reward and the other punishment, even though there were no God; this so perplexes matters, as to dispose them, in opposition to all those plain deductions, to place morality in the essential difference of things. But would they consider that that very sensation, which so much misleads us in judging of the true soundation of morality, is the plainess indication of will, which, for the better support of virtue\*, so framed and constituted the human mind; a constitution utterly inconceivable on the supposition of no God; would they, I say, but consider this, the difficulty would intirely vanish.

But so it hath happened, this evident truth, that morality is founded in will, hath been long controverted even among Theists. What hath perplexed their disputes is, that the contenders for this

\* We have explained above the admirable disposition of things, by the God of nature, for the support of virtue. And it was from this view that an able writer, who is for moderating in the dispute about meral obligation, calls the essential discrence of things, discoverable by reason, the internal obligation, and the swill of God, the external. J'entends (dit-il) par obligation interne celle qui est uniquement produite par notre propre raison, considerée comme la regle primitive de notre conduite, et en consequence de ce qu'une action a, en elle-meme, de bon ou de mauvais. Pour l'obligation externe ce sera celle qui vient de la volonté de quelque être, dont on se reconnoit dependant, et qui commande ou desend certaines choses, sous la menace de quelque peine. Barlamaqui, Principes du droit naturel, p. 76.

If he had called the first, the improper obligation, and the other the proper, his terms had been a great deal more exact. For it being of the effence of the relative term, obligation, to have an outward respect, or external relation, internal obligation must be a very figurative, that is to say, a very absurd expression, when applied to man. Perhaps, indeed, that ruling Nature which draws all machines, whether bratal or rational (if there be any of the latter kind) to pursue bappiness, may, in a philosophic sense, be called the internal obligation; but, surely, when applied to man, supposed a free-agent, the terms are mere jargon.

truth have generally thought themselves obliged to deny the natural effential differences of things, antecedent to a Law; supposing, that the morality of actions would follow the concession. But this is a mistake, which the rightly distinguishing between things naturally and morally separable (as explained above) will rectify. That the distinction hath not been made or observed, is owing to the unheeded appetite and aversion of the moral sense: And their adversaries being in the same delusion, that the one inferred the other, never gave themselves any farther trouble, but when they had clearly demonstrated the natural effential difference, delivered that as a proof of the moral difference, though they be, in reality, two distinct things, and independent of each other. More than one of our ablest writers have not escaped this delusion. Dr. S. Clarke going on the Principle, that Obligation was founded in the nature of things, to support it, was perpetually forced to confound moral and natural fitnesses with one another; which makes him, contrary to his character, very inaccurate and confused \*: And Mr. Wollaston +, diffatisfied with all the principles, from which the preceding writers of his party had deduced the morality of actions, when he had demonstrated, with greater clearness than any before him, the natural effential difference of things, unluckily mistook it for the moral difference; and thence made the formal ratio of moral good and evil, to confift in a conformity of mens actions to the truth of the case, or otherwife. For it is a principle with him, that things may be denied or affirmed to be what they are, by deeds as well as words. But had both parties been pleased to consider this natural effential difference of things, as, what it must be confessed by both to be, THE DIREC-TION WHICH GOD HATH GIVEN HIS CREATURES TO BRING THEM TO THE KNOWLEDGE OF HIS WILL: AND THE RULE OF THAT WILL: the dispute had been at an end: and they had employed this difference, not as the atheist does, for the foundation of morality; but, as

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<sup>•</sup> Evidence of natural and revealed Religion, 6th Ed. p. 5-27.

<sup>+</sup> The Religion of Nature delineated.

all true theists should do, for the medium to bring us to that only found foundation, the will and command of God. Those who imagine, as the author of the principles of natural law feems to do. that this is only a dispute about words \*, are much deceived. The man who regards the effential difference of things as a command or a Law properly so called, hath a very different idea of it, from him who regards it only as a Rule or a Law improperly so called. And the reason is plain, because these relative terms have an effential difference; a Rule, referring fingly to those directed by it; but a Law has a double reference; to those governed by it, and to the Lawgiver who gave it. He therefore who regards it as a Rule, stops short, and rests obligation there, where no obligation can abide: But he who regards it as a Law properly so called (for those who consider it as a mere rule give it the name of law, because they make obligation to arise from it) rests obligation in a Lawgiver, and pursues it to its true source, the throne of God. The dispute, therefore, is not about words, but things: Or if we will needs have it to be about words, it is of the proper and improper use of them, which intimately concerns things; indeed TRUTH itself and COMMON SENSE. We fay a found is fweet, or a colour bot; and as nobody is misled by these expressions, we hold it foolish to divest them of their figure, and formally to contend that (strictly and philosophically speaking) inconsistent properties are ascribed to them. But should it once be assumed that a found may be the subject of tafte and a colour the subject of touch, it would be time, I suppose, to rectify an absurdity which tends to confound all our ideas of fensation: Just so it is, in the expressions of truth or happiness, OBLIGING: While these were considered as the rule or reward of

actions,

<sup>\*</sup> Je conclus—que les differences qui se trouvent entre les principaux systemes sur la nature & l'origine de l'obligation, ne sont pas aussi grandes qu'elles le paroissent d'abord. Si l'on examine de pres ces sentimens, l'on verra que des differentes idées, reduites à leur juste valeur, loin de se trouver en opposition, peuvent se rapprocher—Burlamaqui, p. 75, 76.

actions, given and imposed by a Master on his servants, by a Creator on his creature, the figure was neither forced nor inelegant; and did not deserve to be quarrelled with. But when the question was of real obligation, in a metaphysic sense, then, seriously to contend, that it arises from truth or bappiness, or from any thing but will, is the very philosophy of tasting sound and seeling colour; and equally tends to the consusion of all our ideas of reseason.

On the whole then we see, that an Atheist, as such, cannot arrive to the knowledge of MORALITY \*.

- 2. We now come to our second conclusion against Mr. Bayle's argument, "that the idea of the moral sense, and the knowledge of "the natural essential difference of things, are, even in conjunction, "insufficient to influence Communities in the practice of virtue:" But we must previously observe, that the arguments, which we allow to be conclusive for the Stratonic atheist's comprehension of the natural essential difference of things, take in only that species of atheism: the other, which derive all from chance and hazard, are incapable of this knowledge; and must be content with only the moral sense for their guide. Let us therefore first enquire what this moral sense is able to do alone, towards influencing virtuous practice; and secondly, what new force it acquires in conjunction with the knowledge of the natural essential difference of things.
- 1. Men are missed by the name of instinct (which we allow the moral sense to be) to imagine that its impressions operate very strongly, by observing their force in brute animals. But the cases are widely different: In Beasts, the instinct is invincibly strong, as it is the sole spring of action: In Man, it is only a friendly monitor of the

judgment:

<sup>\*</sup> One would not have imagined any body could be so wild to assert, that, on these principles, it could not be proved, that a vicious Atheist deserved punishment at the hand of God. To such shrewd discerners, I would recommend the sollowing case. Your servant gets drunk; and, in that condition, neglects your orders, forgets your relation to him, and treats it as an imposture. Does he, or does he not, deserve punishment? When this is resolved, the point in question will be so too.

judgment; and a conciliator, as it were, between Reason and the fensual appetites; all which have their turn in the determinations of the Will. It must consequently be much weaker, as but sharing the power of putting upon action with many other principles. Nor could it have been otherwise without destroying human liberty. It is indeed of fo delicate a nature, fo nicely interwoven into the human frame and constitution, and so easily lost or effaced, that fome have even denied the existence of a quality, which, in most of its common subjects, they have hardly been able to observe. Infomuch that one would be tempted to liken it to that candid appearance, which, as the modern philosophy has discovered to us, is the result of a mixture of all kinds of primitive colours: where, if the feveral forts be not found in fit proportions, no whiteness will emerge from the composition. So, unless the original passions and appetites be rightly tempered and balanced, the moral sense can never shew itself in any strong or sensible effect. This being the state of moral inflinet, it must evidently, when alone, be too weak to influence human practice.

When the moral [enfe is made the rule, and especially when it is the only rule, it is necessary that its rectitude, as a rule, should be known and ascertained: But this it cannot be by an Atheist: For till it be allowed there was design in our production, it can never be shewn that one appetite is righter than another, though they be contrarious and inconsistent. The appetite therefore, which, at present, is most importunate to be gratified, will be judged to be the right, how adverse soever to the moral sense. But, supposing this moral senje not to be so easily confounded with the other appetites; but that it may be kept distinct, as having this peculiar quality so different from the rest, that it is objective to a whole, or entire species; whereas the others terminate in self, or in the private system (though, as to whole and parts, an Atheist must have very slender and confused ideas); granting this, I say, yet national Manners, the issue of those appetites, would, in time, effectually, though insensibly,

infensibly, efface the idea of the moral sense, in the generality of men. Almost infinite are the popular Customs, in the several nations and ages of mankind, which owe their birth to the more violent passions of fear, lust, and anger. The most whimsical and capricious, as well as the most inhuman and unnatural, have arisen from thence. It must needs therefore be, that customs of this original should be as opposite to the moral sense, as those appetites are, from whence they were derived. And of how great power, Custom is to erase the strongest impressions of Nature, much stronger than those of the moral sense, we may learn from that general practice, which prevailed in the most learned and polite countries of the world, of exposing their children \*; whereby the strong instinctive affection of Parents for their offspring was violated without remorse.

This would lead one into a very beaten common place. It suffices that the fact is too notorious to be disputed. And what makes more particularly for my argument is, that Custom is a power which opposes the moral sense not partially, or at certain times and places, but universally. If therefore Custom in the politest States, where a Providence was taught and acknowledged, made such havock of Virtue; into what consusting must things run, where there is no

<sup>\*</sup> Of all the moral painters, TERENCE is the man who seems to have copied human nature with most exactness. Yet, his Citizen of universal benevolence, whom he draws with so much life, in that masterly stroke, bomo sum, bumani nibil a me alienum puto, is the same person who commands his wise to expose her new-born daughter, and falls into a passion with her for having committed that hard task to another, by which means the infant escaped death,—si meum imperium exequi volvisses, interemptam operative. Hence even the divine Plato reckons the exposing of infants, if not amongst the dictates of nature, yet amongst the prescripts of right reason: For in his book of laws, which he composed for the reformation of popular prejudices and abuses in human Policies, he decrees, that if the parents had children, after a certain age, they should expose them; and that so effectually, he says, that they should not escape dying by samine. Chremes therefore speaks both the dictates of Philosophy and Custom, when he characterizes such who had any dregs of this natural instinct remaining, as persons—qui neque jus, neque bonum atque equum sciunt.

other barrier than the feeble idea of the moral fense? Nor can it be replied, that the customs here spoken of, as so destructive to the moral fense, are the product of salse Religions; which spring and sountain-head of evil, Atheism at once dries up: For the instance here given is of a Custom merly civil; with which Religion had no manner of concern. And so are a vast number of others that are carefully collected by the two writers mentioned above.

2. But now, fecondly, for our Stratonic Atheist; in whom, we suppose, the moral sense, and the knowledge of the essential difference of things act in conjunction to promote virtuous practice. And in conjunction, they impart mutual strength to one another: For as soon as the essential difference is established and applied, it becomes a mark to distinguish the moral sense from the other appetites, which are irregular and wrong. And, the moral sense being thus carefully kept up and supported, the mind, in its metaphysical reasonings on the essential difference, is guarded from running into visionary refinements.

The question then is, "Whether a clear conviction of right and "wrong, abstracted from all Will and Command, and consequently, strom the expectation of reward and punishment, be sufficient to influence the generality of Men in any tolerable degree?" That it is not, will, I suppose, be clearly seen by the following consideration. All, who have considered human nature attentively, have found that it is not enough to make men follow Virtue, that it be owned to be the greatest good; which, the beauty, benefit, or reasonableness of it may evince. Before it can raise any desire in them, it must first be brought home to them; and considered by them as a good that makes a necessary part of their happiness. For it is not conceived needful, that a man's happiness should depend on the attainment of the greatest possible good; and he daily forms schemes of complete happiness without it. But the gratification of craving appetites, moved strongly by self-love, being thought to

<sup>\*</sup> See Locke's Essay, Chap. Of Power, § 71.

contribute much to human happiness, and being at the same time so opposite to, and inconsistent with Virtue, the generality will never be brought to think, that the uniform practice of it makes a necessary part of human happiness. To balance these appetites, something, then, more interesting must be laid in the scale of Virtue; and this can be only rewards and punishments, which Religion proposes by a morality founded in Will.

But this may be farther understood by what hath been observed above, concerning the nature and original of civil Society. Selfinterest, as we there shew, spurring to action by hopes and sears, caused all those disorders amongst men, which required the remedy of civil Society. And felf-interest, again, operating by hopes and fears in Society, afforded means for the redress of those first disorders; so far forth as Society could carry those hopes and fears. For to combat this universal passion of self-love, another, at least as strong, was to be opposed to it; but such a one not being to be found in human nature, all that could be done was to turn this very Passion in an opposite direction, and to a contrary purpose. Therefore, because Society failed (from the natural deficiency of its plan) in remedying the disorders it was instituted to correct, and confequently was obliged to call in the aid of Religion, as is above explained; it is evident it must proceed still on the same principles of bopes and fears. But, of all the three grounds of Morality, the third only thus operating, and an Atheist not having the third, Religion, which only can give it, must be unavoidably necessary for Society. Or in other words, the moral fenje, and the knowledge of the natural effential difference of things in conjunction, will be altogether infufficient to influence the generality in virtuous practice.

## S E C T. V.

BUT Mr. Bayle, who well understood the force of this Argument, is unwilling to rest the matter here; and so casts about for a motive of more general influence. This, he thinks, he finds Vol. I.

in that strong appetite for glory, praise, and reputation, which an Atheist must needs have as well as other men. And this makes his second Argument.

II. "It is most certain \*, (fays he) that a man devoid of all Re-" ligion may be very fensible of worldly honour, and very cove-" tous of praise and glory. If such a one find himself in a country where ingratitude and knavery expose men to contempt, and gene-" rosity and virtue are admired, we need not doubt but he will " affect the character of a man of honour; and be capable of re-46 storing a trust, even where the Laws could lay no hold upon him. "The fear of passing for a knave would prevail over his avarice. 46 And as there are men, who expose themselves to a thousand in-"conveniencies, and a thousand dangers, to revenge an affront, 44 which perhaps they have received before very few witnesses, and 46 which they would readily pardon, were it not for fear of incur-" ring infamy amongst those with whom they had to do; so I be-" lieve the same here; that this person, whom we suppose devoid " of Religion, would, notwithstanding all the opposition of his. " avarice, be capable of restoring a trust, which it could not be " legally proved he had withheld; when he fees that his good " faith will be attended with the applauses of the whole place "where he resides; while his perfidy might, some time or other, 46 be objected to him, or at least so strongly suspected, that he could? "not pass in the world's opinion for an honest man: For it is "that inward esteem in the minds of others, which we aspire at, " above all things. The words and actions, which mark this esteem, " please us on no other account, than as we imagine them to-" be the figns of what passes in the mind: A machine so ordered 46 as to make the most respectful gesticulations, and to pronounce-44 the clearest articulate sounds, in all the detours of flattery, would. " never contribute to give us a better opinion of ourselves, because

<sup>\*</sup> Il est—fort certain, qu'un homme destituté de foi, peut être fort sensible a l'honneur du monde, &c. Pens. div. c. 179.

"we should know they were not signs of esteem in the mind of another. On these accounts therefore, he, of whom I speak, might facrifice his avarice to his vanity, if he only thought he should be suspected of having violated a trust. And though he might even believe himself secure from all suspicion, yet, still, he could easily resolve to prefer the honourable part to the lucrative, for fear of falling into the inconvenience, which has happened to some, of publishing their crimes themselves, while they slept, or in the transports of a fever. Lucretius uses this motive to draw men, without Religion, to virtue."

To this, I reply, 1. That it is indeed true, that commendation and difgrace are strong motives to men to accommodate themselves to the opinions and rules of those, with whom they converse; and that those rules and opinions, in a good measure, correspond, in most civilized countries, with the unchangeable rule of right, whatever Sextus Empiricus and Montaigne have been pleased to say to the contrary. For virtue evidently advancing, and vice as visibly obstructing the general good, it is no wonder, that that action should be encouraged with esteem and reputation, wherein every one finds his account; and that, discountenanced, by reproach and infamy, which hath a contrary tendency. But then we fay, that seeing this good opinion of the world may be almost as furely gained, certainly with more ease and speed, by a well acted hypocrify than by a sincere practice of virtue, the Atheist, who lies under no restraints with regard to the moral qualities of his actions, will rather chuse to purfue that road to reputation, which is confistent with an indulgence of all his other passions; than that whereby they will be at constant war with one another; and where he will be always finding himfelf under the hard necessity of facrificing, as Mr. Bayle well expresses it, his avarice to his vanity. Now this inconvenience he may avoid by resolving to be honest only before company, which will procure him enough of reputation; and to play the rogue in fecret, where he may fully indulge his avarice, or what other passion he is most dis- $0_2$ poled

posed to gratify. That this will be his system, who has no motive, but popular reputation, to act virtuously, is so plain, that Mr. Bayle was reduced to the hardest shifts imaginable to invent a reason why an Atheist, thus actuated by the love of glory, might possibly behave himself honestly, when he could do the contrary without suspicion.— " And though he might believe himself secure from all suspicion. " yet still he could easily resolve to prefer the honourable part to the " lucrative, for fear of falling into the inconvenience which hath " happened to some, of publishing their crimes themselves, while "they slept, or in the transports of a fever." Lucretius, says he, uses this motive to draw men, without religion, to virtue. It had been to the purpose to have told us, what man, from the time of Lucretius to his own, had been ever so drawn. But they must know little of human nature, who can suppose, that the confideration of these remote, possible indeed, but very unlikely accidents, bath ever any share in the determination of the Will, when men are deliberating on actions of importance, and distracted by the shifting uncertain views of complicated Good and Evil. But granting it to be likely, or common; the man, Mr. Bayle describes, could never get clear of the danger of that contingency, which way foever he resolved to act. Let us suppose him to take the honourable part, even then, fleep or a fever might as easily deprive him of the reputation he affects: For I believe there is no man, of this turn, but would be as ashamed to have it known, that all his virtuous actions proceeded from a felfish vanity, as to be discovered to have stretched a point of justice, of which civil laws could not take cognizance. It is certain, the first makes a man as contemptible, and much more ridiculous in the eyes of others, than the latter; because the advantage aimed at is fantastical: And one discovery sleep or a fever · is as likely to make as the other.

But, 2. Supposing our Atheist to be of so timid a complexion, as to fear that, even in a course of the best-acted hypocrisy, he may risque the danger of being discovered, yet as this practice, by which

he so well covers all the lucrative arts of fraud, enables him to provide well for himself, he will be easily brought to hazard all the inconveniences of a detection, to which, indeed, the course is liable, but which it can so easily repair: for he has ample experience that though indeed esteem is generally annexed to apparent good actions, and infamy to bad; yet that there is no virtue which so universally procures popular Opinion as riebes and power, there being no infamy which they will not essay and this being a road to Opinion which leads him, at the same time, to the gratification of his other passions; there is no doubt but it will be his choice.\*

After many detours, Mr. Bayle is, at length, brought to own, that Atheism is, indeed, in its natural tendency, destructive of Society; but then, he insists upon it, that it never in fact becomes so.

III. Because (and this is his next argument) men do not all according to their principles, nor set their practice by their opinions. He owns this to have very much of a mystery; but for the sact he appeals to the observation of mankind: "For if it were not so," says he +, "how is it possible that Christians, who know so clearly by a Revelation, supported by so many miracles, that they must renounce vice, if they would be eternally happy, and avoid etermal mistery; who have so many excellent preachers—so many zealous directors of conscience—so many books of devotion; how is it possible, amidst all this, that Christians should live, as they do, in the most enormous disorders of vice?" And again \$\frac{1}{2}\$, agreeably to this observation, he takes notice, "that Cicero hath remarked, that many Epicureans, contrary to their principles, "were good friends and honest men; who accommodated their actions, not to their principle, the desire of pleasure, but to the

<sup>&</sup>quot; — Πλέτφ δ'άρτη ης κόθο όπαδι.

Δαίμου δ' οδος είποθα. — Hesiod. Oper, & Dies, versus 311, 312.

<sup>+ -</sup>Si cela n'etoit pas, comment, &c. Pensees diverses, cap. exxxvi.

<sup>1</sup> Cicéron l'a remarqué à l'égard de plusieurs Epicueisne, &c. c. clavii.

"rules of reason." Hence he concludes: "That those lived better than they talked; whereas others talked better than they lived. "The same remark," says he, "hath been made on the conduct of the Stoics: their principle was, that all things arrived by an inevitable necessity, which God himself was subject to. Now this should naturally have terminated in inaction; and disposed them to abstain from exhortations, promises, and menacing. On the contrary, there was no sect of philosophers more given to preaching; or whose whole conduct did more plainly shew, that they thought themselves the absolute masters of their own destiny." The conclusion he draws from all this, and much more to the same purose, is \*, that "therefore Religion doth not do that fervice towards restraining vice as is pretended; nor Atheism that injury in encouraging it: while each professor acts contrary to his proper principle."

Now from this conclusion, and from words dropped up and down +, of the mysterious quality of this phænomenon, one would suspect Mr. Bayle thought that there was some strange Principle in man, that unaccountably disposed him to act in opposition to his opinions, whatsoever they were. And indeed, so he must needs suppose, or he supposes nothing to the purposes for if it should be found, that this Principle sometimes disposes men as violently to act according to their opinions, as at other times it inclines them to act against them, it will do Mr. Bayle's argument no service. And if this Principle should, after all, only prove to be the violence of the irregular appetites, it will conclude directly against him. And by good luck, we have our Adversary himself confessing, that

<sup>\*</sup> Contin. des Penf. div. cap. exlix.

<sup>+</sup> Je conçois que c'est une chose bien étrange, qu'un homme qui vit bien moralement, & qui ne croit ni paradis, ni enser. Mais j'en reviens toujours-là, que l'homme est une certaine creature, qui avec toute sa raison, n'agit pas toujours consequement à sa creance; ce seroit une chose plus infinie que de parcourir toutes les bizarreries de l'homme. Une Monstre plus monstrueux que les Centaures & que la Chimera de la fable. Pensées diverses, cap. clxxvi.

this is indeed the case: for though, as I said, he commonly affects to give our perverse conduct a mysterious air, the necessary support of the fophistry of his conclusion; yet, when he is off his guard, we have him declaring the plain reason of it; as where he says, "The # general idea we entertain of a man, who believes a God, a " heaven and a hell, leads us to think, that he would do every 44 thing which he knows agreeable to the will of God; and avoid " every thing which he knows to be disagreeable to it: But the life " of man shews, he does the direct contrary. The reason is this: "Man does not determine himself to one action rather than another 44 by the general knowledge of what he ought to do, but by the 46 particular judgement he passes on each distinct case, when he is 66 on the point of proceeding to action. This particular judgement " may, indeed, be conformable to those general ideas of fit and " right; but, for the most part, it is not so. " almost always, with the reigning passion of the beart, to the bias of " the temperament, to the force of contracted habits," &c. Now if this be the case, as in truth it is, we must needs draw from this Principle the very contrary conclusion, That, if men act, not according to their opinions, and that it is the force of the irregular appetites which causes this perversity, a Religionist will often act against bis principles; but an Atheist, always conformably to them: because an Atheist indulges his vicious passions, while he acts according to bis principles, in the fame manner that a Religionist does, when he acts against bis. It is therefore only accidental that men act contrary to their opinions; then, when they oppose their passions: or in Mr. Bayle's words, when the general knowledge of what one ought to do, doth not coincide with the particular judgement we pass on each distinct case; which judgement is generally directed by the passions: But that coincidence always happens in an Atheist's determination of himself to action: so that the matter, when stripped of the parade of eloquence, and cleared from the perplexity of the abounding verbage, lies open to this easy answer.

We allow, men frequently act contrary to their opinions, both metaphysical and moral, in the cases Mr. Bayle puts.

1. In metaphyfical, where the Principle contradicts common sentiments, as the floical fate, and christian predestination \*: there, men rarely act in conformity to their opinions. But this instance doth not at all affect the question, though Mr. Bayle, by his manner of urging it, would infinuate, that an Atheist might be no more influenced in practice, by his speculative opinion of no God, than a Fatalist, by bis, of no liberty. But the cases are widely different: for, as the existence of God restrains all the vicious appetites by enforcing the duties of morality, the disbelief of it, by taking off that restraint, would suffer, nay invite, the Atheist to act according to his principles. But the opinion of fate having no such effect on the morality of actions, and at the same time contradicting common fentiments, we eafily conceive how the maintainers of it are brought to act contrary to their principles. Nay, it will appear, when rightly considered, that the Atheist would be so far from not acting according to his opinions, that were his principle of no God, added to the fatalist's of no liberty, it would then occasion the fatalist to act according to his opinions, though he acted contrary to them before; at least, if the cause Mr. Bayle assigns for men's not conforming their practice to their principles, be true: for the fole reason why the fatalist did not act according to his opinions, was, because they could not be used, while he was a Theist, to the gratification of his passions; because, that though it appeared, if there were no liberty, men could have no merit; yet believing a God, the rewarder and punisher of men, as if they had merit, he would act likewise as if they had. But take away from him the belief of a God, and there would be then no cause why he should not act . according to his principle of fate, as far as relates to moral practice.

<sup>\*</sup> Penf. div. c. clxxvi.

2. Next, in morals. We own that men here likewise frequently act contrary to their opinions: For the view (as we observed above) of the greatest confessed possible good, which, to a religionist, is the practice of virtue, will never, till it be confidered as making a necessary part of our happiness, excite us to the pursuit of it: and our irregular passions, which are of a contrary nature, while they continue importunate, and while one or other is perpetually foliciting us, will prevent us from thus considering virtue as making a necessary part of our happiness. This is the true cause of all that disorder in the life of man, which Philosophers so much admire; which the Devout lament; and for which the Moralist could never find a cure: Where the appetites and reason are in perpetual conflict; and the man's practice is continually opposing his principles. But, on the other hand, an Atheist, whose opinions lead him to conclude, sensual pleasure to be the greatest possible good, must, by the concurrence of his passions, consider it as making a necesfary part of bis happiness: and then nothing can prevent his acting according to bis principles.

We own, however, that the Atheist, Mr. Bayle describes, would be as apt, nay apter, to act against his opinions than a Theist: but they are only those slender opinions concerning the obligation to virtueus practice which Mr. Bayle hath given him: for if men do not pursue the greatest confessed possible good, till they consider it as making a necessary part of their happiness; I ask, which is the likeliest means of bringing them so to consider it? Is it the reflection of the innate idea of the loveliness of virtue; or the more abftract contemplation on its effential difference to vice? (and these are the only views in which an Atheist can consider it) or is it not rather the belief, that the practice of virtue, as religion teaches it, is attended with an infinite reward? To those opinions, I say, an Atheist is like enough to run counter: but his principles of impiety, which cherish his passions, we must never look to find at variance with his actions: for our adversary tells us, that the reason why practice and principle fo much differ, is the violence of human Vol., I. appeappetites: from which a plain discourser would have drawn the contrary conclusion; that then, there is the greater necessity to enforce religion, as an additional curb to licentiousness; for, that a curb it is, at least in some degree, is agreed on all hands.

And here, at parting, it may not be amiss to observe, how much this argument weakens one of the foregoing: There we are made to believe, that the moral sense and essential differences are sufficient to make men virtuous: Here we are taught, that these, with the sanction of a Providence to boot, cannot do it in any tolerable degree.

As to the lives of his *Epicureans*, and other Atheists, which we now come to; the reader is first of all desired to take notice of the fallacy he would here obtrude upon us, in the judgement he makes of the nature of the two different principles, by setting together the effects of *Atheisim*, as they appear in the majority of half a score men; and those of *Religion*, as they appear in the majority of infinite multitudes: A kind of sophism, which small sects in religion have perpetually in their mouths, when they compare their own morals with those in large communities, from which they dissent. And now, to come to his palmary argument taken from fact. For,

IV. In the last place, he says \*, "that the lives of the several "Atheists of antiquity fully shew, that this principle does not ne"cessarily produce depravity of morals." He instances "in Diago"ras, Theodorus, Evemerus, Nicanor, and Hippon: "whose virtue
"appeared so admirable to a Father of the Church, that he would
"enrich Religion with it, and make Theists of them, in spite of
"all Antiquity." And then descends to "Epicurus, and his sol"lowers, whom their very enemies acknowledged to be unblameable
"in their actions, as the Roman Atticus, Cassus, and the elder
"Pliny:" and closes this illustrious catalogue with an encomium
on the morality of Vanini and Spinosa: But this is not all; for he
tells us farther +, of whole nations of Atheists, "which modern

<sup>\*</sup> Penf. diver. c. clxxiv. & Contin. des Penf. diver, c. cxliv.

<sup>†</sup> Contin. des Penf. div. c. lxxxv. & c. cxliv.

"travellers have discovered in the islands or continents of Afric and "America, that, in point of morals, are rather better, not worse, than the idolaters who live around them. It is true, that these "Atheists are savages, without laws, magistrate, or civil policy: but this (he says) \* supplies him with an argument à fortiori: for if they live peaceably together out of civil society, much rather would they do so in it, where equal laws restrain men from in"justice." He is so pleased with this argument, that he reduces it to this enthymeme +:

- "Whole nations of atheifts, divided into independent families, have preferved themselves from time immemorial without law.
- "Therefore, much stronger reason have we to think they would still preserve themselves, were they under one common master, and one common law, the equal distributer of rewards and pusionishments."

In answer to all this, I say (having once again reminded the reader, that the question between us is, whether atheism would not have a pernicious effect on the body of a people in society) 1. That as to the lives of those philosophers, and heads of sects, which Mr. Bayle hath thought fit so much to applaud, nothing can be collected from thence, in savour of the general influence of atheism on morality. We will take a view of the several motives those men had to the practice of virtue: for thereby it will be seen, that not one of these motives (peculiar to their several characters, ends, and circumstances) reaches the gross body of a people, seized with the insection of this principle. In some of them it was the moral sense, and the essential difference of things, that inclined them to virtue: but we have fully shewn above, that these are too weak to operate on the generality of mankind; though a few studious, contempla-

<sup>\*</sup> Contin. des Pens. div. c. exviii.

<sup>†</sup> Des peuples athées divises en familles independantes se sont, &c.

tive Men, of a more refined imagination and felicity of temperament, might be indeed influenced by them. In others it was a warm pafsion for fame, and love of glory. But though all degrees of men have this passion equally strong, yet all have it not equally pure and delicate: fo that though reputation is what all affect, yet the grofs body of mankind is little folicitous from whence it arifes; and reputation, or at least the marks of it, which is all the people aspire to, we have shewn, may be easily gained in a road very far from the real practice of virtue: in which road too, the people are most strongly tempted to pursue it. Very small then is the number of those, on whom these motives would operate, as even Pomponatius, in his ample confession taken above, hath acknowledged: and yet these are the most extensive motives that these philosophic Atheists had to the practice of virtue: for, in the rest, the motive must be owned to have been less legitimate, and restrained to their peculiar ends or circumstances; as concern for the credit of the sect they had founded, or espoused: which they endeavoured to ennoble by this spurious lustre. It is not easy for a Modern to conceive, how tender they were of the honour of their Principles: The conference between Pompey and Posidonius the Stoic, is a well-known story \*: and if the fear of only appearing ridiculous by their principles were strong enough to make them do such violence to themselves, what must we believe the fear of becoming generally odious would do, where the principle has a natural tendency, as we see Cardan frankly confessed, to make the holder of it the object of public abhorrence? But if the fense of shame were not strong enough, self-preservation would force these men upon the practice of virtue: for though, of old, the Magistrate gave great indulgence to philosophic speculations; yet this downright principle of atheism being universally understood to be destructive to Society, He frequently let loose his severest resentment against the maintainers of it: so that such had no other way to disarm his vengeance, than in persuading him by

<sup>\*</sup> Tusc. Disp. 1. ii. c. 25. Edit. Oxon. 4. t. II. p. 297.

their lives, that the principle had no such destructive tendency. In a word then, these motives being peculiar to the leaders of sects, we see that the virtuous practice arising from thence makes nothing for the point in question.

2. But he comes much closer to it, in his next instance; which is of whole nations of modern Savages, who are all atheifts, and yet live more virtuously than their idolatrous neighbours. And their being yet unpolicied, and in a state of nature, makes, he thinks, the instance conclude more strongly for him. Now, to let the truth of the fact pass unquestioned; though Homer seemed to have a very different opinion of the matter, when he makes the atheistical Cyclops to be the most unjust and violent, as well as most brutal, race of men upon earth. And what faith might be expected from such a people, the poet gives us to understand, in that fine circumstance, where one of them was accosted by U/ysses, who was then a stranger to their Principles. This wary hero, imploring the affistance of a Cyclop, tells him with great openness who he was, whence he came, and the fum of his adventures. But no fooner had the Monster professed himself a thorough free-thinker, than the experienced traveller lost all hopes of faith or justice from him; and, from that moment, put himself upon his guard, and would not trust him with one word of truth, more.

'Αλλά μιν αψοβίου στροσέψην δολίοις ἐπέεσσι.

But I say, to let this pass, I shall endeavour to detect the sophistry of his conclusion (which I had before obviated in the second section \*, concerning the insufficiency of human Laws alone) in a fuller explanation of that reasoning.

It is notorious, that man in Society, is incessantly giving the affront to the public laws. To oppose which, the Community is as constantly busied in adding new strength and force to its ordinances. If we enquire into the cause of this perversity, we shall find it no

other than the number and violence of the appetites. The appetites take their birth from our real or imaginary wants: our REAL wants are unalterably the same; and, as arising only from the natural imbecillity of our condition, extremely few, and eafily relieved. Our FANTASTIC wants are infinitely numerous, to be brought under no certain measure or standard; and increasing exactly in proportion to our improvements in the arts of life. But the arts of life owe their original to Society \*: and the more perfect the Policy, the higher do those improvements arise; and, with them, are our wants, as we fay, proportionably increased, and our appetites inflamed. For the violence of these appetites, which seek the gratification of our imaginary wants, is much stronger than that raised by our real wants: not only because those wants are more numerous, which give constant exercise to the appetites; and more unreasonable, which make the gratification proportionably difficult: and altogether unnatural, to which there is no measure; but, principally, because vicious custom hath affixed a kind of reputation to the gratification of the fantastic wants, which it hath not done to the relief of the real ones. So that when things are in this state, we have shewn above, that even the most provident Laws, without other assistance, are insufficient. But in a state of nature, unconscious of the arts of life, men's wants are only real; and these wants, few, and easily supplied. For food and covering are all which are necessary to support our Being. And Providence is abundant in its provisions, for these wants: and while there is more than enough for all, it can hardly be, that there should be disputes about each man's share.

<sup>\*</sup> There is one remarkable circumstance in the Mosaic history, that I should fancy, must needs give our free-thinkers a high idea of the veracity or penetration of the author. It is, where, having represented Cain as the first who built a city, or made advances towards civil society, he informs us, that his posterity were the inventors of the arts of life, in the instances he gives of Jobal, Jubal, and Tubal-Cain.

And now the reader fees clearly how it might well be, that this rabble of Atheists should live peaceably in a state of nature, though the utmost force of human Laws, in the improved condition of Society, could not hinder them from running into mutual violence. But the sophistry of this enthymeme is further seen from hence. Not even Mr. Bayle himself would pretend, that these Atheists, who live peaceably in their present state, without the restraint of human laws, would live peaceably without this restraint, after they had understood and practised the arts of life in credit amongst a civilized people. In Society therefore, which the arts of life inseparably accompany, an imposed curb, he will own, would be necessary. I then argue thus, If a people, who out of Society could live peaceably without the curb of Law, could not live peaceably without that curb in Society; you have no reason to believe, that though out of fociety they might live peaceably without the curb of religion, they could live peaceably, without that curb, in Society? The answer to this must bring on again the question, How strong the curb on man, in Society, should be? which we have fully examined in another place. This argument, therefore, proves nothing but the folly of pretending to conclude, concerning man in Society, from what we see of his behaviour, out of it.

And here, in conclution, once for all, it may not be amiss to observe, the uniform strain of sophistry which runs through all Mr. Bayle's reasonings on this head. The question is, and I have been frequently obliged to repeat it, he so industriously affecting to forget or mistake it, Whether Atheism be destruitive to the body of a Society? And yet he, whose business it is, to prove the negative, brings all his arguments from considerations, which either affect not the gross body of mankind, or affect not that body, in Society: in a word, from the lives of Sophists or Savages; from the example of a few speculative men far above the view of the common run of citizens; or from that of a barbarous crew of savages much farther below it. All his sacts and reasonings then being granted, they still fall short and wide of his conclusion.

But the last stroke of his apology is more extravagant than all the rest: for having proved atheism very consistent with a state of nature, lest it should happen to be found not so consistent with civil society, but that one of them must rise upon the ruins of the other, he gives a very palpable hint which of the two he thinks should be preserved; by making it a serious question, discussed in a set differtation, whether civil society be absolutely necessary for the preservation of mankind; and very gravely resolving it in the negative.—And here let me observe, that these Philosophers (as Mess. Voltaire and D'Alembert call all those who despise Religion) never suffer a good hint to lye unimproved. The famous citizen of Geneva building upon this before us, hath since written a large Discourse to shew, that Civil Society is even hurtful to manking.

## SECT. VI.

Have here given, and to the best advantage, all the arguments Mr. Bayle hath employed to prove Religion not necessary to civil Society; by which it may be seen, how little the united force of wit and eloquence is able to produce for the support of so outrageous a paradox.

The reader will imagine, that now nothing can hinder us from going on to our *fecond* proposition; after having so strongly supported the *firft*. But we have yet to combat a greater monster in morals before we can proceed.

As the great foundation of our proposition, that the doctrine of a future flate of rewards and punishments is necessary to civil society, is this, that religion is necessary to civil society; so the foundation of this latter proposition is, that VIRTUE is so. Now, to the lasting opprobrium of our age and country, we have seen a writer publicly

maintain,

<sup>\*</sup> Contin. des Penf. div. c. cxviii.

<sup>†</sup> Si les societéz sont absolument necessaires pour conserver le genre humain.

maintain, in a book so intituled, that PRIVATE VICES were PUBLIC BENEFITS. An unheard-of impiety, wickedly advanced, and impudently avowed, against the universal voice of nature: in which moral virtue is represented as the invention of knaves; and christian virtue as the imposition of fools: in which (that his insult on common sense might equal what he puts on common honesty) he assures his reader, that his book is a system of most exalted morals and religion: And that the justice of bis country, which publicly accused him \*, was pure calumny.

But I shall undertake to shew, and that in very few words, to the admirers of the low bussionry and impure rhetoric of this wordy declaimer, that his whole fabric is one confused heap of falshoods and absurdities.

I. First then, it is to be observed, that though his general position be, that private Vices are public benefits, yet, in his proof of it, he all along explains it by Vice only in a certain measure, and to a certain degree. And, as all other writers have deduced the necessity on private men in society, to be virtuous, and on the magistrate severely to punish vice, from the malignity of the nature of Vice; so he enforces this necessity, on both, from the malignity of its excess. And indeed he had been only fit for Bedlam had he not given this restriction to the general sense of his proposition.

However, this is full enough to expose the falshood of that affertion, which his whole book is written to support, namely, that vice is absolutely necessary for a rich and powerful Society. For what-soever is absolutely necessary to the well-being of another in matter of morals, must be so, by its essential properties; the use of which thing will be, then, in proportion to its degree. And this the common moralists observe of Virtue with regard to the State. But whatsoever is useful to another, only when in a certain degree, is not so by its essential properties; if not by its essential properties,

<sup>\*</sup> By the Grand-jury of Middlefex.

then, of course, by accident only; and, if by accident, not necessary.

The first part of the former affertion may be proved thus. If A be absolutely necessary to B, it is, because neither C, nor D, nor any thing but A, can supply the wants of B. But if nothing but A can supply these wants, it is because the supplial is afforded by the effential properties of A; which effential properties are incommunicable to all other beings; the communication of them to C, D, &c. making C and D the same as A, which is absurd: for if the supplial of the wants of B were caused by what was not essential to A, but accidental; then might these wants as well be supplied by C, D, &c. as by A; because that which is accidental only, may belong in common to feveral different beings. The fecond part may be proved thus: These effential qualities can never be excessive; as for instance. There can never be too much Virtue in a state. Specific Virtues, indeed, may be pushed to excess; but then they lose their nature, and become Vices; in which state of things, Society will be fo far from having too much, that it will have too little Virtue. It is not so with generic Virtue; therefore that effential Quality in A, which in a lower degree profits B, must in a higher degree be still more useful to B. On the other hand, accidental Qualities may be excessive; so that, that accidental Quality in A. which profiteth B in a lower degree, may injure B in a higher. This is the case of REAL LUXURY, in its effects on Society; as will be shewn in the progress of this section: for though a specific Virtue carried to an excess becomes Vice, yet a Vice, so pushed on, never becomes Virtue; but, on the contrary, by advancing in malignity, more clearly evinces it's true nature, and exposes its baleful effects.

From all this, it appears, that a great and powerful Community, which is, in itself, a natural good, and, as such, desirable, may procure and preserve its grandeur without Vice, though Vice so frequently produces and supports it: because this utility of Vice

not arising from its essential qualities, but from some accidental circumstances attending it, may be supplied by something that is not Vice, attended with the same circumstances. As for instance, the consumption of the products of art and nature is the circumstance which makes States rich and flourishing. Now if this consumption may be procured by actions not vicious, then may a State become great and powerful without the assistance of Vice. That it may, in fact, be thus procured, shall now be shewn.

II. The Author, descending to the enumeration of his proofs, appears plainly to have feen, that Vice in general was only accidentally productive of good; and therefore avoids entering into an examination of particulars; but selects, out of his favourite tribe, LUXURY, to support his execrable paradox; and on this alone rests his cause. By the affistance of this ambiguous term, he keeps something like an argument on foot, even after he hath left all the rest of his Citycrew to shift for themselves. And it must be owned, there is no word more inconstantly and capriciously applied to particular actions; or of more uncertain meaning, when denominating fuch actions, than the term Luxury. For, unapplied, it has like all other moral modes, an exact and precise fignification; and includes in it, the abuse of the gifts of Providence. The difficulty is only to know when this question is abused. Men have two ways of deciding: the one, by the principles of Natural religion; the other, by the positive institutions of Revealed. In those Principles, all men are reasonably well agreed; but, concerning these Inflitutions, when taken separately and independent on those Principles, there are various opinions, which superstition and fanaticism have greatly distorted: consequently, those who estimate Luxury by this latter rule, (where obscurity and, of course, consusion, are so difficult to be avoided) will difagree extremely about it: and amongst such diversity of notions, it would be strange indeed, if some or other had not ideas of Luxury, which would ferve the wildest hypothesis; and Q<sub>2</sub> much

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much stranger, if so corrupt a Writer did not take advantage of them. He has done it like a master: and with a malice and cunning to intitle him, though he be but a follower, to be a Leader of a fect.

First, in order to perplex and obscure our idea of Luxury, he hath laboured in a previous differtation, on the origin of moral virtue, to destroy those very principles, by whose assistance we are only able to clear up and afcertain that idea: where he decries and ridicules the effential difference of things, the eternal notions of right and wrong; and makes VIRTUE, which common moralists deduce from thence, the offspring of craft and pride.

Nothing now being left to fix the idea of Luxury, but the pofitive precepts of Christianity, and he having stript these of their only true and infallible interpreter, the principles of natural Religion; it was easy for him to make those precepts speak in favour of any abfurdities that would ferve his purpofe, and as easy to find such abfurdities supported by the superstition and fanaticism of some or other of those many Sects and Parties of christianity, who, despifing the principles of the Religion of Nature as the weak and beggarly elements, foon came to regard the natural appetites, as the graceless furniture of the old man, with his affections and lusts.

Having got CHRISTIANITY at this advantage, he gives us for Gospel, that meagre Phantom begot by the hypocrify of Monks on the misanthropy of Ascetics: which cries out, AN ABUSE! whenever the gifts of Providence are used, further than for the bare support of nature. So that by this rule every thing becomes Luxury which is more than necessary. An idea of Luxury exactly fitted to our Author's hypothesis: for if no State can be rich and powerful while its members feek only a bare subsistence, and, if what is more than a bare subsistence be Luxury, and Luxury be Vice; the consequence, we see, comes in pat, PRIVATE VICES ARE PUBLIC BENE-PITS. Here you have the fole issue of all this tumour of words.

But

But it is difficult to think, that a Writer of such depravity of heart, had not farther ends in this wicked representation of natural and revealed Religion. We cannot doubt his purpose, when we resect upon his gains, which are, the fixing of his followers in a propensity for Vice, and in a prejudice against Christianity. For what can be more in favour of Vice, than, that there is no moral duty? What more in discredit of Christianity, than, that all the enjoyments of life are condemned by it as evil?

III. But the GOSPEL is a very different thing from what Bigots and Fanatics are wont to represent it. It enjoins and forbids nothing in moral practice, but what natural Religion had before enjoined and forbid. Neither indeed could it, because one of God's Revelations, whether ordinary or extraordinary, cannot contradict another; and because God gave us the first, to judge of others, by it. Accordingly we find, that though it be indeed one of the great ends of Christianity (but not the main and peculiar end) to advance the practice of moral virtue amongst men, yet the New Testament doth not contain any regular or complete tystem or Digest of moral laws; the detached precepts enforced by our divine Master in it, how excellent and perfect foever, arifing only from the occasions and circumstances which gave birth to those discourses or writings, in which such precepts are delivered. For the rest, for a general knowledge of the fystem of moral-duty, the founders of our Religion hold open to us the great Pandect of the law of nature, and bid us fearch and study that. Finally, says the apostle Paul, what soever things are true, whatsoever things are honest, whatsoever things are just, what soever things are lovely, what soever things are of good report, think on these things. But where vicious custom, or perverse Interpreters, had depraved the Religion of Nature, there, particular care was taken to remove the rubbish of time and malice, and to reinftate the injured moralities in their primitive dignity and splendor.

The Religion of Nature, then, being restored, and made the rule to explain and interpret the occasional precepts of Christianity; what

is Luxury by natural Religion, that, and that only, must be Luxury by revealed. So that a true and precise definition of it, which this Writer (triumphing in the obscurity which, by these arts, he hath thrown over the idea) thinks it impossible to give, so as not to suit with his hypothesis, is easily settled. Luxury is the using the gists of Providence, to the injury of the User, either in his person or fortune; or to the injury of any other, towards whom the User stands in any relation, which obliges him to aid and affishance.

Now it is evident, even from the instances this Writer brings of the public advantages of confumption, which he indifcriminately, and therefore fallly, calls Luxury, that the utmost confumption may be made, and so all the ends of a rich and powerful Society served, without injury to the User, or any one, to whom he stands related: consequently without Luxury, and without Vice. When the confumption is attended with fuch injury, then it becomes Luxury, then it becomes a Vice. But then, let us take notice, that this Vice, like all others, is so far from being advantageous to Society, that it is the most certain ruin of it. was this Luxury which destroyed Rome. And the very definition given above, informs us of the manner how it came to pass: namely, by enervating the body, debauching the mind, beggaring the fortune, and bringing in the practice of universal rapine and injustice. But the wretched absurdity of supposing Luxury beneficial to society, cannot be better exposed, than by considering, that, as Luxury is the abusing the gifts of Providence, to the injury of himself and of those to whom we stand related; and as the Public is that, to which every man stands nearest related; the consequence is, that Luxury is, at one and the same time, beneficial and injurious to the Public. Nor can the absurdity I here charge upon him, be evaded by faying it is deduced from a proposition of his, and a definition of mine, set together: Because, however we may differ whether the use of things, where no one is injured, be Luxury; yet we both agree in this, that where there is that injury in the use, it is Luxury; and Luxury, in this sense, he holds to be beneficial to Society. The

The case I here put, of Luxury's injuring the PUBLIC, by depriving the state of that aid and assistance from particulars, which, the relation they stand in to it, requires them to give, is no imaginary or unlikely supposition. This effect of Luxury it was which contributed, more immediately than any other, to the destruction of the Roman Commonwealth. For in the last struggles for liberty by a FEW, against the humour of a debauched luxurious people, when nothing but a fufficient fund was wanting to enable those godlike men to restore the Republic, the richest citizens, who yet wished well to their Country, could not be prevailed upon to retrench from their private Luxury, to support the Public in this critical exigency: which therefore, having been long shaken by the Luxury of its enemies, fell now a facrifice to the Luxury of its friends. Thus the great Roman patriot describes the fatal condition of those times; Nos habemus LUXURIAM, atque avaritiam; publice egestatem, privatim opulentiam.

In a word then, it is not Luxury, but the consumption of the products of art and nature, which is of fo high benefit to Society. That this consumption may well be, without Luxury, appears plainly from the definition given above. All the difference is, and that a very effential one, when the consumption is made without Luxury, infinitely greater numbers share in it; when it becomes Luxury, it is confined to fewer. The reason of this, and the different effects this different confumption must have on the Public, is very evident. Had the confumption of the commodities and products of Greece when conquered (which indeed were necessary to render the Romans polite and wealthy) been more equally made by that people, it would have been extremely beneficial. But being unjustly claimed by one part, exclusive of the rest, "omnia virtutis præmia ambitio of possidebat," it became luxury and destruction. The Historian shews us how it was brought about: "There (fays he) the Roman " people first began to intrigue, to debauch, to affect a taste for sta-"tues, pictures, and high-wrought plate. To come at which, " they

"they oppressed the private, plundered the public, violated the temples of the Gods, and polluted and confounded every thing both facred and prophane." Till at length,

" Sævior armis

"LUXURIA incubuit, victumque ulciscitur orbem."

HAVING endeavoured to shew in this and the two following Books, that the Priests and Lawgivers of former times all concurred in supporting the belief of a future state, I am stopped in the midst of my course, by a late noble Writer, who hath taken advantage of this notorious truth, to represent the labours of those Moderns, who have trode in the same steps, as a confederacy between Divines and Atheists to dishonour and degrade the God of the Universe.

- "After pleading the cause of natural and revealed Religion, (says his Lordship) I am to plead the cause of God himself, against "Divines and Atheists in confederacy to
- "The conduct of Christian Divines has been so far from defending the Providence of God, that they have joined in the clamour against it. Nothing has hindered, even those who pretend
  to be his Messengers, his Embassadors, his Plenipotentaries, from
  renouncing their allegiance to him, (as they themselves have
  the front to avow,) but the hypothesis of a future state.
  On this bypothesis alone, they insist; and therefore, if this will not
  ferve their turn, God is disowned by them, as effectually as if
  he was so, in terms!" "Divines, if not Atheists, yet are

44 ABETTERS of Atheism §."

<sup>•</sup> Ibi primum insuevit exercitus populi Romani amare, potare, signa, tabulas pictas, vasa cælata mirari, ea privatim ac publice rapere, delubra spoliare, sacra prosanaque omnia polluere.

<sup>+</sup> Lord Bolingsroke's Works, vol. V.p. 305.

<sup>‡</sup> Vol. V. p. 487, 8. § Vol. V. p. 485.

"That there were some men who knew not God in all ages, "may be true: but the scandalous task us combating his existence under the mask of Theism, was reserved for Metaphysicians and Theologians \*."

--- Divines are still more to be blamed. A CONFEDERACY WITH ATHEISTS becomes ill the professors of Theism. No matter. They PERSIST, and have done their best, in concert with their allies, to DESTROY the belief of the GOODNESS of God:—They endeavour to DESTROY that of his GOODNESS, which is a farther article of their Alliance +."

"The CONFEDERACY between Atheists and Divines appears to have been carried VERY FAR—Nay the Atheist will appear, to that reason, to which they both appeal, more consistent in his absurdity than the Divine ‡." "Divines UPBRAID God's GOOD-" NESS, and CENSURE his JUSTICE §."—"INJUSTICE is, in this life, ascribed to God, by Divines ||."

"The whole Tribe of Divines, like Wollaston and Clarke, do, in effect, RENOUNCE the God whom you and I adore, as much as the rankest of the Atheistical Tribe. Your Priests and our Parsons will exclaim most pathetically, and RAIL OUTRAGEOUSLY at this affertion. But have a little patience, and I will prove it to their shame to be true \*\*."

The Reader will give me leave, in a few words, to vindicate the body of Divines from the horrid calumny of this imaginary Confederacy.

He may be pleased then to understand, that ATHEISM has ever endeavoured to support itself, on a fact, which has indeed all the certainty that the evidence of sense and experience can give it; namely, the unequal distribution of moral good and evil, here below.

- "Cum res hominum tanta caligine volvi
- " Adspicerem, lætosque diu florere nocentes,
- " Vexarique pios \_\_\_\_LABEFACTA CADEBAT
- "RELIGIO,"-

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• Vol. V. p. 307. † Vol. V. p. 393. † Vol. V. p. 348, 9. 

§ Vol. V. p. 417. † Vol. V. p. 541. * Vol. V. p. 485. 

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was the common language of the impatient sufferer. From hence the Atheist inferred, that the Universe was without an intelligent Ruler; and that all things were driven about by that Fate or Fortune, which first produced them. Divines opposed this Conclusion; for they did not venture to be so paradoxical as (with his Lordship) to call in question the Premisser, a phenomenon which objected itself to all their Senses. They first demonstrated, strictly demonstrated; the Being of a God, and his MORAL ATTRIBUTES: and then shewed, that if the whole of man's existence were included within this life, the present distribution of good and evil would contradict that Demonstration. They, therefore, inferred, on their part, that the whole of man's existence was not included within this life: but that he was reserved for an after-reckoning; in which, an equal distribution of rewards and punishments would amply vindicate the providence of a righteous Governor.

But Atheiss were not the only enemies whom Divines had to deal with. There was a fet of men, who allowed an intelligent first Cause, endowed with those MORAL ATTRIBUTES, which the Divines had demonstrated: and, on that account, called themselves Dets Ts. Yet they agreed so far with Atheism, as to confine the whole of man's existence to the present life. These, the Divine combated, in their turn; and with the same arms; but in an inverted order. In disputing with the ATHEISTS, the principle held in common was the present unequal distribution of Good and Evil. So that to cut off their conclusion from it, of NO GOD, he demonstrated the Being and Attributes: and from that proof inferred that the inequality would be set right. With DEISTS, the common principle was the Being and Attributes of God. Therefore, to bring them to the allowance of a FUTURE STATE, he appealed to the present unequal diftribution of good and evil, (which these Men, as well as his Lordthip, were very backward to allow and very industrious not to see;) and from that inequality inferred, that there must be such a State.

This is a short and true account of the DIVINE's contest with ATHEISTS and DEISTS, so far as the subject of a future state came in question:

question: In both controversies that state is deduced from the meral attributes: only with this difference. In the dispute with Atheists, the demonstration of those attributes is made; in the dispute with Deists, it is allowed. The final purpose against Atheism is to prove the BEING AND ATTRIBUTES of God; the sinal purpose against Deism is to prove a future state: For neither natural nor revealed Religion can subsist without believing that God is, and that be is a REWARDER of them that seek him\*. Thus, we see, the question, in each controversy, being different; the premiss, by which each proposition was to be proved, must need be different. The difference is here explained; the premiss, in the argument against Atheists, were the moral attributes; the premiss, in the argument against Deists, were the unequal distribution of good and evil.

What Enemy to Religion now, could ever hope to fee a Calumny either thrive or rife on so unpromising a ground? or flatter himself with the expectation of an Advocate bold enough to tell the World. that this conduct of the DIVINES was a CONFEDERACY WITH ATHEISTS, to decry God's Providence; to blot out his Attributes of goodness and justice; to combat his Government; and to deny his very Existence? The RIGHT HONOURABLE Author does all this: And more;—he expects to be believed. It is true, this is a fine believing age: Yet I hardly think he would have carried his confidence in our credulity so far, had he seen his way clear before him.—His Lordship is always sublime, and therefore often cloudy; commonly, at too great a distance to look into the detail of things, or to enter into their minuteness: (for which, indeed, he is perpetually felicitating his Genius.) So that, in his general view of Theologic matters, he has jumbled these two Controversies into one; and, in the confusion, hath commodiously slipped in one Fact for another. He, all the way, represents Divines as making a future State THE PROOF of God's moral attributes: Whereas, we now see, on the very face of the controversy, that they make the moral attributes A PROOF of

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a future State. Let us consider how the dispute stands with the Atbeist. These men draw their argument against a God, from the condition of the moral world: The Divine answers, by demonstrating God's Being and Attributes: and, on that demonstration, satisfies the objection. Consider how it stands with the Deist. Here, God's Being and Attributes is a common principle: And on this ground the Divine stands, to deduce a future state from the unequal distribution of things—But his misrepresentation was to support his slander of a Confederacy: there was no room to pretend that God's Being was made precarious by proving a future state from his Attributes; but could he get it be believed, that Divines proved the Attributes from a future state, he would easily find credit with his kind Reader, for all the rest.

Well then, the whole amount of his CHIMERICAL CONFEDERACY comes to this, That Divines and Atheists hold a principle in common; but, in common too with all the rest of mankind; namely, that there are irregularities in the distribution of good and evil here below. And did any thing forbid Divines to employ this common principle, in support of Religion against Atheism and Deism! But whatever his Lordship might think proper to disguise in this reasoning, there is one thing, the most careless Reader will never overlook; which is, that, under all this pomp of words and folemnity of accusation, you see lurking that poor species of a Bigot's calumny, which, from one principle held in common with an obnoxious Party, charges his Adversary, with all the follies or impieties which have rendered that Party odious. This miserable artifice of imposture, had now been long hissed out of learned controversy, when the noble Lord took it up; and, with true political skill, worked it into a SHAM PLOT; to make Religion distrust it's best Friends, and take refuge in the FIRST PHILOSOPHY.

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## B O O K II.

#### S E C T. I.

AVING now proved the first PROPOSITION, That inculcating the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments is necessary to the well-being of Society, by considerations drawn from the nature of Man, and the genius of civil Society; and cleared it from the objections of licentious Wits;

I proceed to the *fecond*; which is, THAT ALL MANKIND, ESPE-CIALLY THE MOST WISE AND LEARNED NATIONS OF ANTIQUITY, HAVE CONCURRED IN BELIEVING AND TEACHING, THAT THIS DOCTRINE WAS OF SUCH USE TO CIVIL SOCIETY.

This I shall endeavour to prove,

- I. From the conduct of Lawgivers, and Inflitutors of civil policy.
- II. From the opinions of all the Learners and Teachers of wisdom in the schools of ancient philosophy.
- I. FROM THE CONDUCT OF LAWGIVERS, AND INSTITUTORS OF CIVIL POLICY: who never omitted to propagate and confirm Religion, where-ever they established Laws; Religion, I say, which was always first in their view, and last in their execution. They used it as the instrument to collect a body politic; and they applied it as the bond to tye and keep that body together: they taught it in civilizing man; and established it to prevent his return to barbarity and a savage life. In a word, so inseparable, in the ancient World.

World, were the ideas of LAWGIVING and RELIGION, that Plutarch (in his paradoxical preference of atheism to superstition) supposes no other Origin of divine worship than what was the work of the Lawgiver. "How much happier had it been (says he) for the Carthaginians, had their first Lawgiver been like Critias or Dia"goras, who believed neither Gods nor Demons, rather than such a one as enjoined the public sacrifices to Saturn !!"

That the Magistrate, as such, hath taken the greatest care and pains to inculcate and support Religion, we shall prove at large: That this care and pains must arise, and was employed, on account of its confessed and experienced utility to the State, will need no proof.

But here it will be necessary to remind the reader of this previous truth, That there never was, in any age of the world, from the most early accounts of time, to this present hour, any civil-policied nation or people, who had a Religion, of which the chief foundation and support was not the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments; the JEWISH PEOPLE only excepted. This, I presume, our adversaries will not deny. Mr. Bayle, the indulgent foster-father of Infidelity, confesseth it in the fullest manner, and with the utmost ingenuity: "Toutes les religions du monde, tant la vraie que " les fausses, roulent sur ce grand pivot, qu'il y a un juge invisi-" ble qui punit & qui recompense, apres cette vie, les actions de "l'homme tant exterieures qu'interieures. C'est de la que l'on " supote que decoule la principale utilité de la religion:" and thinks, it was the utility of this doctrine which set the Magistrate upon inventing a Religion for the State: "C'est le principal motif qui eut " animé ceux qui l'auroient inventée +."

<sup>\*</sup> Τ΄ δ΄ Καρχυδούος θε έλυστείλει Κειτίαι λαθώσει θ Διαγέρει υμοθέτην απ' άρχης, μήτε τινά θεών μέτε δαιμάνοι υμείζει, θ τααύτα θύου οία τῷ Χρόιο 3000 ;--- Περί δεισιδ.

P. 171. tom. II. fol. 1599. Francof.

<sup>+</sup> Dich. Crit. & Hift. Art. Spinoza. Rem. (E.)

## SECT. 1. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED. 129

This truth, we beg the reader always to have in mind: So that when, in the sequel of this discourse, he meets with ancient testimonies for the necessity of RELIGION to Society, he may be sure, that the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, was the chief idea included in that term. And on this account it is, that frequently, where the Ancients speak of the fource of those utilities, which can proceed only from the doctrine of a future state, they give it the common name of Religion: as, on the other hand, they often call Religion by the restrictive name of a future state: On which account, I have not scrupled, throughout this discourse, to use the same liberty of applying the generic or specific term, one for the other, without any apprehension of being thought not to understand my argument, or of being misunderstood by my reader: Who, when he fees me bring facts and opinions of Antiquity, which shew the utility of Religion in general, to prove the utility of the doctrine of a future state in particular, will understand that I speak home to my purpose, and to the full proof of my second proposition.

So that, had I done no more than produce fuch facts and opinions, I had done all that was necessary. But since the bare necessary is esteemed almost as poor and unhandsome a thing in literature as in civil life, I have employed the greatest part of the present and sollowing books to shew, from ancient facts and opinions, the more than ordinary care and concern of all the wise and learned for perpetuating the specific doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

Having premised thus much to prevent mistakes, I proceed in the first place,

1. To shew, in general, the civil Magistrate's care in this matter.

The popular doctrine of a Providence, and, consequently, of a future state of rewards and punishments, was, as we have said, so universally received in the ancient world, that we cannot find any Vol. 1.

civilized country where it was not of national belief. The most ancient Greek poets, as Museus \*, Orpheus +, Homer, Hesiod, &c. who have given fystems of theology and religion, on the popular creed of fuch nations, always reckon the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments as a fundamental article: And all fucceeding writers have given testimony to the same concerted plan. Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes, whose profession it was to represent the manners and opinions of all civilized people, whether Greeks or those whom the Greeks called Barbarians, are full and express to the same purpose. Further, it is recorded in the works of every ancient historian and philosopher, which it would be endless to recite. But Plutarch, the most knowing of them all. shall speak for the rest: " Examine 1," says he, in his tract against Colotes the Epicurean, " the face of the globe, and you may find "Cities unfortified, unlettered, without a regular Magistrate, or 44 appropriated habitations; without possessions, property, or the " use of money, and unskilled in all the magnificent and polite arts. of life: But a City without the knowledge of a God, or the prac-"tice of Religion: without the use of vows, oaths, oracles, and 44 facrifices to procure good, or of deprecatory rites to avert evil, " no man can or ever will find." And in his confolation to Apollonius, he declares it § was so ancient an opinion that good men should be recompensed after death, that he could not reach either to the author or original of it. To the same purpose had Cicero and Seneca

<sup>\*</sup> Plato Rep. lib. xi. p. 364. E. T. II. Edit. Steph. 1578. fol.

<sup>+</sup> Plutarch, Vita Lucul.

<sup>1 —</sup> ιύροις δ' દેર દેવાએ જે અંધાર વેવાલા દ્વાલા કે જુવામાં ત્યાર, હેંદિલાના તે હંદાના, હેલ્લાના જે અનિવાલ કે અધિના કે અને સ્વાલા કે સ્વ

<sup>§ —</sup>Καὶ τὰυθ΄ ἄτως ἀρχαῖα κὰ σκαλαιὰ διαθελεῖ πιομισμένα σας ἡμῖι ῶςε τὸ σκεκάπαι ἀδεὶς οἶδι ἀδι τὰ χρόιο τὴι ἀρχὴν ἄτε τὸι θίελα σερῦτοι, ἀλλὰ τὸι ἄσειροι αιῶια τείχαιστε διὰ τέλος ὅτο πιομισμένα. Edit. Steph. 8°, 1572. Τ. I. p. 201.

declared themselves before him. The first in these words; "As our innate ideas discover to us that there are Gods, whose "attributes we deduce from reason; so, from the consent of all nations and people, we conclude that the soul is immortal." The other thus: "When + we weigh the question of the immortality of the soul, the consent of all mankind, in their fears and hopes of a suture "state, is of no small moment with us."

In a word, Sextus Empiricus, when he would discredit the argument for the being of a God, brought from universal consent, observes that it would prove too much; because it would prove the truth of the poetic fables of bell, in which there was as general a concurrence t.

But of all nations, the EGYPTIAN was most celebrated for its care in cultivating Religion in general, and the doctrine of a suture state in particular: insomuch that one of the most ancient Greek historians affirms, They were the first who built altars and erected statues and temples to the Gods &.—The first who taught that the soul of man was immortal. And Lucian tells us ||, That they were said to be the first who had the knowledge of the Gods. Which only amounts to this, that they were the first and wisest civil-policied people: as will appear presently.

But, at present, to prove the Magistrate's care from bence.—
For this account of the antiquity and universality of Religion is not given to evince its truth; for which purpose other writers have

<sup>\* —</sup>Ut Deos esse natura opinamur, qualesque sint ratione cogniscimus; sic permanere animos arbitramur consensu nationum omnium. Tuscul. Disp. l. i. c. 16. in initio. Ed. Oxon. 4°. T. II. p. 245.

<sup>†</sup> Cum de animarum æternitate disserimus, non leve momentum apud nos habet confensus hominum, aut timentium inseros, aut colentium. Ep. 117.

<sup>1</sup> Adv. Physicos, I. viii. c. 2. Comment.

<sup>§</sup> Βυμές το 23 αγάλμαθα 23 τεὺς θεοίσε αποτείμαι σφίας ατείτυς. Herod. Euterpe, C. 4..... Πεβτοι δε 23 τότδε τὸτ λόγοι Αίγετθεεί είστι οι είπειτες ως ανθεύπυ ψυχά αθαίαθες έρι. Id. ib. C. 123.

η Περτοι μια άνθρόπων Αίγονται λίγονται θεών το εποικ λαθού. De Dea Syria, § 2. Edit. Reitzii.

often and successfully employed it; but to manifest its vse; which will be best done by inquiring what share the Magistrate had in it.

I. Now though no civilized nation was ever without a Religion in general, and this doctrine in particular; and though it was of general belief even before civil policy was instituted amongst mankind; yet were there formerly, as now there are, many savage nations, that when first discovered, appeared to have long lost all traces of Religion: A fact which implies some extraordinary care in the Magistrate for its support and preservation. For if Religions hath been supported in all places, at all times, and under all circumstances, where there was a magistrate and civil policy; and scarce in any place, or under any circumstance, where these were wanting; what other cause than the Magistrate's care and contrivance can be assigned for its support?

If it should be said, which, I think, is the only plausible thing can be said, that the reason why the Citizen had religion, and the Savage none, might be, that, amongst the advantages of civil life, the improvement and cultivation of the mind is one; and this necessarily brings in the knowledge of God and religious observance: It is sufficient to reply, that all the national Religions of the ancient and modern Gentile world are so gross and irrational, that they could not be the product of reslection or improved reason, but were plainly of the Magistrate's sitting up, adapted to the capacity of minds yet rude and uncultivated, which could bear nothing of a finer texture than what was made out of the stuff he found, the genius of the Nation and the nature of the Government.

To give the proof of what we have been saying: The Mexicans and Peruvians in the South, and the people of Canada in North America, were on a level with regard to speculative knowledge. Or, if there were any natural advantage, the Canadians had it. These, when discovered, seemed to have no rudiments of Religion: The Mexicans and Peruvians had one formed, digested, and established: but such a religion as discovered something worse than mere

ignorance,

ignorance, but never could be the refult of improved thinking: However a religion it was which taught the great articles of the worship of a God, a providence, and a future state. Now how happened it that these two great empires had a Religion, and the Canadians none, but that the Lawgivers of the former saw it necessary to countenance, add to, and perpetuate what they found \*, for the benefit of the state? which advantage the Canadians wanting, they lost, in course of time, the very soot-steps of Religion. If this will not be allowed, it will be difficult to assign a reason.

Let us suppose, according to the objection, that gentile Religion owes its birth to the improved and cultivated mind. Now, if we make collections from the nature of things, it will be found more likely that these northern Savages should longer preserve the notions of God, and the practices of Religion, than the southern Citizens, uninfluenced by their Magistrates.

The way of getting to the knowledge of a God, best suited to the common capacity of man, is that very easy one, the contemplation of the works of nature: For this employment the Savage would have fitter opportunities given him by his vacant and sedentary life; and by his constant view of nature, which all his labours, and all his amusements, perpetually presented to him naked and unsophisticated. The Comte de Boulainvilliers, a writer by no means prejudiced in favour of religion, gives this reason why the Arabians preserved so long, and with so much purity, their notions of the Divinity +.

On the other hand, Nature, by which we come to the know-ledge of a first Cause, would be quite hid from the southern Citizen, busied in the works of barbarous arts, and inhuman practices; or taken up with the slavish attendance on the will, and a more slavish imitation of the manners of a cruel and capricious Tyrant.

<sup>\*</sup> See Book III. Sect. 6. II. 1. and pag. antepenult.

<sup>+</sup> La Vie de Mohammed, p, 147. Ed. Amst. 1731. Je reviens volontiers à la louange de la solitude des Arabes. Elle a conservé chez eux plus longtems, & avec moins de mèlange, le sentiment naturel de la veritable divinité, &c.

Nor, if we may credit the relations of travellers, do the northern people any more neglect to exercise their reason than the southern: It is constant, they are observed to have sounder intellects than those nearer the sun: which, being owing to the influence of climes, is sound to hold all the world over. Notwithstanding this, the issue proved just the contrary; and, as we said, the *Peruvians* and *Mexicans* had a Religion, the *Canadians* none at all.

Who then can doubt but that this was owing to the care and contrivance of the Magistrate? But indeed (which makes this instance the more pertinent) the fact confirms the reasoning. The Founders of these two monarchies pretended to be the messengers and offspring of the Gods; and, in the manner of the Grecian, and other Legislators (of whom more hereafter) pretended to inspiration, established Religion, and constituted a form of worship.

II. But not only the existence, but the genius too of pagan Religion, shews the Magistrate's hand in its support.

First, From the origin of their Gods.

Secondly, From the attributes given to them; and

Thirdly, From the mode of publick worship.

First, The idolatry of the gentile States was chiefly the worship of dead men; and these, Kings, Lawgivers, and Founders of civil policy. The benefit accruing to the State both from the consecration and the worship of such Gods, shews it to be a contrivance of the Lawgiver. For, t. Nothing could be a greater excitement to good government than to shew the Magistrate that the public benefits, which he should invent, improve, or preserve, would be rewarded with an immortality of same and glory? Cicero gives this as the original of the civil apotheosis. "It may be easily understood, that "the reason, why most Cities prosecuted the memory of their va-"liant men with divine honours, was to spur up their Citizens to "virtue, that every the most deserving of them might encounter dangers with the greater chearfulness, in the service of his country. And for this very cause it was that, at Athens, Erectheus and his

" daughters

"daughters were received into the number of the Gods \*." 2. Nothing could make the people so observant of their Laws, as a belief that the makers, framers, and administrators of them were become Gods; and did dispense a peculiar providence for their protection and support.

The records of antiquity support this reasoning. The EGYPTIANS were the first people who perfected Civil-policy, and established Religion: And they were the first, too, who deified their kings. lawgivers, and publick benefactors+; as we may collect from the passage of Herodotus, quoted above, which says, they were the first who built altars, and erected STATUES and temples to the Gods: For the erecting flatues was, by this historian, esteemed a certain mark that the worshipers believed the Gods had buman natures; as appears from the reason he gives why the Persians had no statues of their Gods, namely, because they did not believe as the Greeks, that the Gods had human natures ‡, that is, they did not believe the Gods were dead men deified: This, as we fav, was a practice, invented by the Egyptians; who, in process of time, taught the rest of the world their mystery &. So when arts and civil policy were brought into Greece by Cadmus and Ceres (the first, though a Phenician by birth, being an inhabitant of Thebes in Egypt; and the other, though coming immediately from Sicily, was yet a natural

<sup>\*</sup> Atque in plerisque civitatibus intelligi potest, augendæ virtutis gratia, quo libentiùs reipublicæ causa periculum adiret optimus quisque, virorum sortium memoriam honore deorum immortalium consecratam. Ob cam enim ipsam causam Erechtheus Athenis siliæque ejus in numero deorum sunt. Nat. Deor. 1. iii. c. 19. Edit. Ox. 410. T. II. p. 503.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Αλλυς δ' εκ τύτων επιγείως γενίσθαι φασίν, υπάρξαντας μεν θιντώς, διά δι σύντσιν κ) κοιών άιθεύπων είκε είσε το το τος τος άθαιασίας διν είως κ) βασιλείς γεγενίκαι καθά τον Αίγεπίκο. Diod. Sic. I. i. g. &. Steph. Ed.

I 'Ως μιν ίμοι δικειν, ότι ώκ ανθροποφυίας διόμισαν τώς θιώς, καθάπες εί Ελλανες είναι. Clio. L. 131. And see note [A], at the end of this Book.

<sup>§</sup> Προλαρθρώσαι δι άναδασίο πρός τὰν αύθις σαφάνιατ, κỳ τὰν τῶν μυτὰ μίρο διάδωσιν, ὅτι οἱ σκελαιόταθοι τῶν βαρδάζων, ἐξαιρίτως δι Φοίνικίς τι κỳ ΛΙΓΥΠΤΙΟΙ, παρ' ὧν κὰ οἱ λειποὶ σαςίλαδοι ἀνθρωποιρ. διὰς ἐνόμιξον μιγήτως τὰς τὰ πὰς τὰ βλια. εὐεργίτας τα τύτως κὰ σολλῶν αἰτίως ἀγαθῶν ἡγώμιου, ὡς θιὰς προσικύων. Philo Bibl. apud Eufeb. Prap. Łvang. l. ii. c. 9.

Egyptian) then, and not till then, began the custom of deifying dead men; which soon over-ran all Greece and the rest of Europe \*.

- 2. The attributes and qualities assigned to their Gods, always corresponded with the nature and genius of the government. If this was gentle, benign, compassionate, and forgiving; goodness and mercy were most essential to the Deity: But if severe, inexorable, captious, or unequal; the very Gods were Tyrants; and expiations, atonements, lustrations, and bloody sacrifices composed the system of religious worship. In the words of the great Poet,
  - "Gods partial, changeful, passionate, unjust,
  - "Whole attributes were rage, revenge, and lust,
  - "Such as the fouls of cowards might conceive,
  - "And form'd like tyrants, tyrants would believe +."

But 3. The mode of public worship was alone sufficient to betray the Mover of the whole machine. The object of what we call Religion, being God, considered as the creator and preserver of a species of rational beings, the subject of it must needs be each individual of that species. This is that idea of Religion, which our common reason approves. But now, in ancient paganism, Religion was a very different thing: It had for its subject not only the natural man, that is, each Individual; but likewise the artificial man, Society; by and for whom, all the public rites and ceremonies of it were instituted and performed. And while that part of pagan Religion, whose subject were individuals, bore an inferior part, and was con-

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<sup>\*</sup> Sir Isaac Newton, who, probably, had not this matter in his thoughts, hath yet a remarkable passage to this purpose in his Chronology of the Greeks: "Idolatry (says he) to began in Chaldra and Egypt.—The countries upon the Tigris and the Nile being exceeding fertile, were first frequented by mankind, and grew first into kingdoms; and the therefore began first to adore their dead kings and queens:—Every city set up the worship of its own sounder and kings, and by alliances and conquests they spread this worship, and at length the Phanicians and Egyptians brought into Europe the practice of deifying the dead." Pag. 161.

<sup>†</sup> Essay on Man.

But

fessed to be under an unequal Providence, the consideration of which brought in the doctrine of a future state for the support of God's government; the other, whose subject was the artificial man, Society, taught a more equal Providence, administred to the State. The consequence of which was, that Religion and Government ran into one another; and prodigies and portents were as familiar as civil edicts; and as constantly bore their share in the public administration: For the Oracles, without which nothing was projected or executed, always denounced them as rational directions, declarative of divine favour, or displeasure; in which particulars, as such, were not at all concerned: So that to accept or to avert the omen; to gratulate the mercy, or deprecate the judgment, the constant method was the revival of old rites, or the institution of new. A reformation of manners, or enforcement of sumptuary laws, never made part of the state's atonement to the Gods.

The oddness and notoriety of this fact so forceably struck Mr. Bayle's imagination, that, mistaking this for the whole of Paganism, he too hastily concluded, that the worship of false Gods in the ancient world, did not at all influence morals \*: And from thence formed an argument to support his favourite question in behalf of Atheism. This was a strange conclusion: For though it be indeed true, that the public part of pagan Religion had no influence on morals, it is utterly false that the private part had not: For in the doctrine of a future state, which was the foundation of, and inseparable from, this founder part of pagan Religion whose subject was the individual, the merit and demerit, to which rewards and punishments were annexed, was virtue and vice only. This will be proved at large in the fourth section of the present book: Though I am ready to allow, that the nature and administration of the public part of pagan Religion did lead individuals into many wrong conclusions concerning the efficacy of exterior acts of worship.

<sup>\*</sup> Pensées diverses sur un comete, &c. And Reponse aux Questions d'un Provincial. And Continuation des Pensées diverses, &c.

But what feems to have occasioned Mr. Bayles's mistake (besides his following the Fathers, who in their declamations against paganism have said a great deal to the same purpose \*) was his not reflecting that ancient History only presents us with one part of the influence of Paganism, that which it had on the Public as a body: The other, the influence it had on individuals, it passes over in silence, as not its province.

Whoever now considers the genius of Paganism in this view, (and unless he considers it in this view he will never be able to judge truly of it +) can hardly doubt but that the civil magistrate had a great hand in modelling *Religion*. What it was which enabled him

- \*Yet St. Austin himself cannot but own that the Mysteries however (of which the Reader will hear a great deal in the 4th Section of this Book) were principally instituted for the promoting of virtue and a good life, even where he is accusing Paganism in general for its neglect of moral virtue: "Nec nobis nescio quos susurros paucissimorum auribus anhelatos & arcana velut religione traditos jactent, quibus vitæ probitas castitasque discatur."—Civ. Dei, l. ii. c. 6.—" lidem ipsi Dæmones—perhibentur in adytis suis, se secretisque penetralibus dare quædam bona præcepta de motibus quibusdam velut electis sacratis suis—Proinde malignitas dæmonum nist alicubi se, quemadmodum feriptum in nostris litteris novimus, transsiguret in angelos lucis, non implet negotium deceptionis. Foris itaque populis celeberrimo strepitu impietas impura circumsonat, se intus paucis castitas simulata vix sonat: præbentur propatula pudendis, & secreta laudandis: decus latet, & dedecus patet." &c. c. 26.
- † What is here said of the genius of Paganism well accounts for a circumstance in ancient history, which very much embarrasses the modern critics. They cannot conceive how it happened, that the best ancient historians, who understood so well what belonged to the nature of a Composition, and how to give every fort of work its due form, and were besides free from all vulgar superstition, should abound so much in descriptions of religious rites and ceremonies; and in relations of omens, prodigies, and portents. Many an idle hypothesis hath been framed to give a solution of this difficulty; and many a tedious work compiled to justify these ancient historians, upon mere modern ideas. But now a plain and easy answer may be given to it. This part of pagan Religion was so interwoven with the transactions of State, that it became effectial to civil history. And how much soever it may be supposed to have deformed ancient story, yet the Critic and Philosopher gain by what disgusts the delicacy of the Politician; the Greek and Roman history being the repository of all that concerns the public part of pagan religion.

to give this extraordinary cast to Paganism, is not difficult to discover: It could be nothing but that popular disposition arising from, and the necessary consequence of, those general notions, which, by his contrivance and encouragement, had overspread the heathen world? 1. That there were local tutelary Deities, who had taken upon themselves, or were intrusted with, the care and protection of particular Nations and People; (of which, more hereaster.) 2. That those great benefactors of mankind, who had reduced the scattered tribes and clans into civil Society, were become Gods. 3. and lastly, That their systems of Laws and civil Institutes were planned and digested by the direction of the legislator's patron-Deity \*.

On the whole then, The foregoing confiderations of the prefervation of Religion in general; the origine of the pagan Gods; their attributes; and the mode of public worship, will, I am persuaded, incline the reader to think that, for the universality of religious belief, the world was chiefly indebted to the civil Magistrate; how much foever the illegitimate or unnatural constitution of particular States, or the defective views of particular Lawgivers, contributed to deprave the true Religion of nature; or, if you will, the patriarchal. The learned St. Austin, who excelled in the knowledge of antiquity, feems to have been determined by this way of thinking, when he gives it, as the refult of his enquiries; that the civil Magistrate had a large share in pagan superstition. His words are these +, " - Which indeed seems to have been done " on no other account but as it was the business of princes, out of "their wisdom and civil prudence, to deceive the people in their 44 Religion-princes, under the name of religion, persuaded the

<sup>\*</sup> See the beginning of the next fection.

<sup>+ —</sup>Quod utique non aliam ob causam factum videtur, nisi quia hominum principum velut prudentium & sapientium negotium suit populum in religionibus sallere— Homines principes ea, quæ vana esse noverint, religionis nomine populis tanquam vera suadebant: Hoc modo eos civili societati velut arctius alligantes, quo subditos possiderent. De Civit. Dei, 1. iv. c. 32.

people to believe those things true which they themselves knew to the idle fables. By this means, for their own ease in government, tying them the more closely to civil Society."

But if now it should be objected, that it was natural for the people, left to themselves, to run into those superstitions, we may readily grant it without prejudice to the argument: For they are always fuch notions as are apt to be entertained and cherished by vulgar minds, whose current the wise Magistrate is accustomed to turn to his advantage. For to think him capable of new modelling the human mind, by making men religious whom he did not find so, is, as will be shewn hereafter, a senseless whimsy, entertained by the Atheist to account for the origin of Religion. And, when it is feen that all these various modes of superstition concurred to promote the Magistrate's purpose, it can hardly be doubted but he gave them that general direction. The particular parts of gentile Religion, which further strengthen and confirm this reasoning, are not here to be infifted on. Their original will be clearly feen, when we come to shew the several methods which the Magistrate employed for this great purpose. What these methods were, the course of the argument now leads us to consider.

## SECT. II.

I Thath been shewn in general, from the EFFECT, that Lawgivers and founders of civil policy did indeed support and propagate Religion. We shall now endeavour to explain the CAUSES of that effect, in a particular enumeration of the arts they employed to that purpose.

· I. The FIRST step the Legislator took, was to pretend a Mission and revelation from some God, by whose command and direction he had framed the Policy he would establish. Thus Amasis and Mneves, lawgivers of the Ezyptians (from whence this custom spread over Greece

Greece and Asia) pretended to receive their laws from Mercury; Zoroaster the lawgiver of the Bactrians, and Zamolxis lawgiver of the Getes, from Vesla; Zathraustes the lawgiver of the Arimaspi, from a good spirit or genius; and all these most industriously and professedly propagated the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments. Rhadamanthus and Minos lawgivers of Crete, and Lycaon of Arcadia, pretended to an intercourse with Jupiter; Triptolemus lawgiver of the Athenians, affected to be inspired by Ceres; Pythagoras and Zaleucus, who made laws for the Crotoniates and Locrians, ascribed their institutions to Minerva: Lycurgus of Sparta, professed to act by the direction of Apollo; and Romulus and Numa of Rome put themselves under the guidance of Consus, and the Goddess Egeria\*. In a word, there is hardly an old Lawgiver on record, but what thus pretended to revelation, and the divine affiftance. But had we the lost books of Legislators written by Hermippus, Theophrasius, and Apoliodorus +, we should have had a much fuller list of these inspired statesmen, and doubtless, many further lights on the subject. The same method was practised by the founders of the great outlying empires, as Sir William Temple calls them. Thus the first of the Chinese monarchs was called Fagfeur or Fanfur, the fon of Heaven, as we are told by the jesuits, from his pretensions to that relation. The royal commentaries of Peru inform us, that the founders of that empire were Mango Copac, and his wife and fister Coya Mama, who proclaimed themselves the son and daughter of the Sun, fent from their father to reduce mankind from their favage and bestial life, to one of order and society. Tuisco the founder of the German nations pretended to be fent upon the same message, as appears from his name, which signifies the interpreter I, that is, of the Gods. Thor and Odin, the lawgivers of the Western

<sup>\*</sup> Diod. Sic. l. i. & v. Ephorus apud Strabonem, l. x.—teste veteri scriptore apud Suidam in [Δυκάμο]—Arist. apud Schol. Pind. ad. Olymp. x.

<sup>+</sup> Athen. I. xiv. D. Lacrtius.

Vide Sheringham, De Anglorum gentis origine, p. 86.

Goths, laid claim likewise to inspiration and even to divinity \*. The Revelations of Mahomet are too well known to be infifted on. the race of these inspired Lawgivers seems to have ended in Gengbizcan the founder of the Mogul empire +.

Such was the universal custom of the ancient world, to make Gods and Prophets of their first kings and lawgivers. Hence it is, that Place makes legislation to have come from God, and not from man 1: and that the constant epithets to kings, in Homer, are ΔΙΟΓΕΝΕΙΣ born of the Gods, and ΔΙΟΤΡΕΦΕΙΣ bred or tutored by the Gods &.

From this general pretence to revelation we may collect the fentiments of the ancient lawgivers concerning the use of Religion to Society. For we must always have in mind what Diodorus Siculus fo truly observes, That they did this, not only to beget a veneration to their laws, but likewise to establish the opinion of the superintendency of the Gods over buman affairs ||. One may venture to go farther, and

- \* Olim quidam magicæ artis imbuti, Thor videlicet & Othlnus, obtentis simplicium animis, divinitatis fibi fassigium arrogare cæperunt.-Adeo namque fallaciæ eorum effectus percrebuit, ut in ipsis ceteri quandam numinum potentiam venerantes, eosque deos, vel deerum complices autumantes veneficiorum auctoribus solennia vota dependerent, & errori sacrilego respectum sacris debitum exhiberent. Saxo-Gram. I. vi. Histor. p. 93. Francof. 1576. fol.
- † Ils ont attribué des revelations à Genghizean; & pour porter la veneration des peuples aussi loin qu'elle pouvoit aller, ils lui ont donné de la divinité. Ceux qui s'interefsoient à son elevation eurent même l'insolence de le faire passer pour fils de Dieu. Sa mere plus modeste, dit seulement qu'il etoit FILS DU SOLEIL. M. Petit de la Croix, le pere, Histoire du Genghizcan, c. 1.
- 1 Oric & rec debigurus upir, & firm, ellupe rir airlas rie rus ropus dabiosuc; KA. Oric, & fire, Seds, de ye to dinasotulor estes. De Leg. I. i. lin. i.
- § Θυμός δι μέγας ές ι λοτχεφί Φασιλή Φ. Il. B. ver. 196. which title of διοτχεφί Φ is not given, fays Eustathius on the place, to fignify that such a one is descended from Jupiter, but that he receives his honour and authority from him. Epopenious Acti AIOFENEIE & ΔΙΟΤΡΕΦΕΙΣ τὸς βασιλιζ λίγει, τὸχ ότι ἐκ Διὸς τὸ γέιΦ- ἔλαυσι, άλλ' ότι ΕΚ ΕΚΕΙΝΟΥ ΑΥΤΟΙΣ H TIMH.
- ll Milà yac रहे कारे कार्यकार रहें प्रवर Aiyorlos Bis प्रवीदायकार, रहे मार्थकोक्ष्मांक प्राण्डिक देश रा रहे प्र चुं राम केर्पण, कार्रिया Çari सर्वेरण बेशुर्वसीमा र्लमान अर्श्वयविवा रवे सर्वेरीय विधा रहे Merbur, बेल्ट्रेस

and fay, that to establish this superintendency was their principal and direct aim, in all their pretensions to inspiration.

The reader may observe, that Diodorus does not so much as sufpect them of having a third end, distinct from these two; that is to fay, the advancement of their own private interest. And this with great judgment. He knew well the difference between a LAWGIVER and a TYRANT; though the World foon after feems to have lost the memory of that distinction \*. Such views became not the former: they destroyed his character, and changed him into his direct oppofite; who applied every thing to his own interest; and this amongst the rest. Aristotle, in his maxims for setting up, and supporting a tyranny, lays this down for one, to feem extremely attached to the worship of the Gods, for that men have no apprehension of injustice from fuch as they take to be religious and to have a high sense of providence. Nor will the people be apt to run into plots and conspiracies against those, whom they believe the Gods will, in their turn, fight for, and support +. And here it is worth noting, that, anciently, Tyrants, as well as Lawgivers, gave all encouragement to Religion; and endeavoured to establish their irregular Wills, not by convincing men that there was no just nor unjust in actions; but by persuading

υ τη δυχή μίγαι ω τη βίφ κοινόταδον των μιαμοιευομένων, σεροποιαθήναι δι αυτή τεν Εχαήν διδικείται τύτας, ώς μιγάλων άγαθών αίτως ισομένως ααθάπες σας Ελλανι σοιήσει φαστι είναι τη Κρότη Μένως σας δι Λακλλων φάσαντα τώτας είλαφείται κή σαρ ενέρος δι σλιέστη διοιοι παςαδίδοται τώτο τὸ γέι τηνοίας ύπάςξαι, κή σολλών άγαθών αίτων γικόθαι τος σεισθέσιση—

<sup>—</sup>είτε εξ αιδε τὰ ἐατροχὰν εξ δίναμιν τῶν εὐειῖν λιγομένων, τὰς κόμας ἀποδλέψαιλα τὸν ἔχλον, μᾶλλον ἐπακόσισθαι διαλαδόιλας. L. i. p. 59. Edit. Steph.

<sup>\*</sup> Quintilian L. VIII. C. 6. (pag. 415. Edit. Oxon. 1693, 4to). de Tropis, fays that Paftor Populi, though used by Homer, is so Poetical that he would not venture to use it in an oration: and ranks it with Virgil's—Volucres pennis remigare. What could occasion so strange a piece of Criticism, but that when Quintilian wrote under the Tyrants of Rome, the People had lost the very idea of the Kingly Office?

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Ετι & τὰ ωρὸς τὰς θεὰς Φείνισθαι ἀιὶ συνδάζοιλα διαφιρόιλος, ἄτθο τι γὰς φιθύιλαι, τὸ ωαθοῦ τι ωαςάνοιων ἐπὸ τῶν τοιώτων, ἐὰν δισοδαίμουα κριίζωσεν είναι τὸν ἄρχοντα κὰ τροδίζειν τῶν θιῶν κὰ ἐποκλεόνωσεν ἄτθον, ἀς συμμάχυς ἔχουλικὰ τὰς θεώς. Polit. L. v. c. 11. T. IIL p. 547. D. E. Edit. Parif. fol. 1639.

them that the privilege of divine right exempted the Tyrant from all moral obligation. Hence may be seen the absurdity of Hobbes's scheme of Politics, who, for the sake of the Magistrate, was for eradicating Religion. But the ancients knew better; and so too did some of the moderns.\*.

The question then is, whether these pretensions of the ancient Lawgivers were seigned in the sirst intention, for the sake of Society or of Religion? For it is no question, but that what we here shew was contrived by the Magistrate for the service of Religion, was done ultimately for the sake of Civil Government. Or in other words, the question, I say, is, Whether this pretence to inspiration was made to establish a civil or a religious Society? If a civil; the ends aimed at must be the reception of his policy, or provision for its perpetuity. I speak not here of that third end, the securing a veneration, for them, to posterity; and for a good reason, because this is the very thing I contend for; such veneration being only to be procured by the influence of Religion; the peculiar mode of which, the pretended inspiration introduces. The ends then in question, are reception for the policy; or provision for the perpetual duration of it.

1. For the reception, there would be small need of this expedient.

1. Civil laws are seen by all to be so necessary for the well being of every individual, that one can hardly conceive any need of the belief of divine command or extraordinary assistance to bring men to embrace a scheme for associating, or to manifest the right they have of so doing. For (as the great Geographer says) Man was born with this inclination to associate. It is an appetite common both to Greeks and Barbarians: for, being by nature a civil animal, be lives readily under one common policy or law +. Besides several of these

<sup>. \*</sup> Et non è cosa piu necessaria à parere d'havere che questa ultima qualita [religione] perche gli huomini in universale giudicano piu a gli occhi che alle mani, perché tocca à vedere a ciascuno a sentire à pochi. Machiavel del Principe, c. 18.

<sup>†</sup> Πίφυνε γάς ότω. Καὶ κοικό ἐκιβεύτο κὰ τοῖς ελλησε κὰ τοῖς Βαςδάροις Πολιλκοὶ γάς όντις, ἀκὸ σηστάβαθ» κοιοῦ ζώσου. Strabo, Geogr. l. xvi. Edit. Casand. p. 524. lin. 16.

Legislators gave laws to a willing people, on the strength of their personal character of virtue and wisdom; and were called upon to that office, in which nothing was wanting to beget the necessary veneration to him who discharged it. And though it might possibly have happened to a people to be so far funk into brutality, as to be difinclined towards the recovery of a reasonable nature, like those with whom it is said Orpheus had to deal; who (being savages, without the knowledge of morality or law) reduced them into fociety, by reommending to them piety to the Gods, and instructing them in the ways of superstition \*: yet this was not the case of the generality of those with whom these Lawgivers were concerned: and therefore if we would assign a cause of this pretence to revelation as extensive as the fact, it must be that which is here given. But, 2dly, we find, that where Religion was previously settled, no inspiration was pretended. On this account neither Draco nor Solon, Lawgivers of Athens, laid claim to any: for they found Religion well fecured by the institutions of Triptolemus and Ion. And we know, that, had pretended inspiration been only, or principally, for the easier introduction and reception of civil policy, the fanguinary laws of Draco had stood in more need of the fanction of a revelation, than any other of antiquity. Indeed, Maximus Tyrius goes fo far as to fay, that Draco and Solon prescribed nothing in their laws, concerning the Gods, and their worship +; which, if true, would make as much against us, on the other hand. But in this he is mistaken. Porphyry quotes an express law of Draco's concerning the mode of divine worship. Let the Gods and our own country beroes be publicly worshipped, according to the established rites; when privately, according to every man's abilities, with terms of the greatest regard and reverence; with the first fruits of their labours,

<sup>&</sup>quot; - Ore Inguious solat rut antente, m ure ion, des ionus, eideras eis diverdumentan abayun, m iur ri montin maganaticus. Fleraclit. de Incred. c. 23.

<sup>†</sup> Πο γάρ Αθυκείος συκέπει,—τὶ μὰ τὸ δαιμένιον, πος δὶ τιμαθέν ; ὰ γάς τῷ κυάμφ λαχέιλες δίκας κι χίλιου ταῦτα ἐξελάζουν, εδὸ Σώ ου τὶ ὑτὰρ αἐτῶν γέγςαφεν, ἐδὸ εἰ Δράκειλο συμκεὶ νόμοι. Ditlett. xxxix. p. 383. Edit. Lugd. 1630, 840.

and with annual libations\*. Andocides + quotes another of Solon, which provides for the due and regular celebration of the ELEUSI-NIAN MYSTERIES. Athenaus does the same. And how considerable a part these were of divine worship, and of what importance to the very essence of religion, we shall see hereafter.

2. As to a provision for the perpetuity of national laws and institutions; This entered not into the intention of the old Greek legiflation; nor, if it had, could it have been obtained by giving them a divine original. Amongst the wild projects of the barbarous eastern policy, one might find, perhaps, fomething like a system of immutable laws; but the Grecian Lawgivers were too well acquainted with the nature of man, the genius of Society, and the vicisfitude of human things, ever to conceive so ridiculous a design. Besides, the Egyptian legislation, from which they borrowed all their civil wisdom, went upon very different principles. It directed public laws to be occasionally accommodated to the variety of times, places, and manners. But had they aimed at perpetuity, the belief of a divine impolition would not have served the turn; for it never entered their heads, that civil institutes became irrevocable by their issuing from the mouth of a God; or that the divinity of the fanction altered the mutability of their nature: the honour of this discovery is due to certain modern writers, who have found out that divine authority reduces all its commands to one and the same species. We have a notable instance of this in the conduct of Lycurgus. He was the only exception to the general method, and fingular in the idle attempt of making his laws perpetual. For his whole fystem being forced and unnatural, the sense of that imperfection, it is probable, put him upon the expedient of tying them

<sup>\*</sup> Θιὸς τιμᾶι κὸ Ἡρως ἔχυρίως ἐν κοινῷ, ἐκομίνος κόμοις καθρίοις, ἐδία καθλ Μιαμιο σὸν εἰφτιμία κὸ ἀπαρχαῖς καρτῶν, κὸ ακλάτοις ἐπεθείως. De Abît. l. iv. § 22. (Edit. Cautabr. 4688), 8vo.) according to the emendations of Petit and Valentinus.—The law is thus introduced, Θισμὸς αἰών Φ τοῖς ᾿Αθέδα κιμομένοις, Κύρι τὸν ἄπαιδα χρέκον.

<sup>+</sup> Orat. Hiji Murigian, apud Decem Orat.

on an unwilling people. But then be did not apply divine authority to this purpose; for, though he pretended to inspiration like the rest, and had his revelations from Apollo, yet he well knew that the authority of Apollo would not be thought sufficient to change the nature of positive laws: and therefore he bound the People by an oath, to observe his policy till his return from a voyage, which he had determined beforehand never to bring to that period.

Having shewn that there was no need of a pretence to revelation, for the establishment of civil Policy, it follows, that it was made for the sake of Religion.

# SECT. III.

HE SECOND step the Legislators took to propagate and estab-I' lish Religion, was to make the general doctrine of a Providence (with which they prefaced and introduced their laws) the great fanction of their institutes. To this, Plutarch, in his tract against Colotes the Epicurean, refers, where he observes, that Colotes himself praises it; that, in civil Institutes, the first and most important article' is the belief of the Gods. And so it was (says he) that, with vows, oaths, divinations, and omens, Lycurgus sanctified the Lacedemonians, Numa the Romans, ancient lon the Athenians, and Deucalion all the Greeks in general: And by HOPES and FEARS kept up amongst them the awe and reverence of religion \*. On this practice was formed the precept of the celebrated Archytas the Pythagorean; which fect, as we shall see hereafter, gave itself up more professedly to legislation; and produced the most famous founders of civil policy. This Lawgiver in the fragments of his work de lege, preserved by Stobaus, delivers himself in this manner: The first law

<sup>\* — &</sup>quot;Αλλά μὸι ἔς γι κὰ Κολότης ἐπαικῖ διαδάξευς τῶν νόμων, αρῶτός ἐξιο ἡ αιρὶ θιῶν δέξα, κὰ μέγιρου.

ἢ κὰ Αναῦχγος Λακιδαιμενίως, κὰ Νέμας 'Ρυμαίως, κὰ Ίων ὁ αναλαιὸς 'Αθυναίως, κὰ Διυκαλίων Έλληνας ἐμῶ τοι ακάθας καθωσίωσαν εὐχαῖς, κὰ ὅςτως, κὰ μαντεύμασι, κὰ φύμαις, ἐμπαθεῖς αγὸς τὰ θεῖα δὰ ἐλπίσδου ἄμα κὰ φόδων ακλαγάσειδες. Edic, Francof. fol. 1599. p. 1225. D.

of the Constitution should be for the support of what relates to the Gods, the Dæmons and our Parents, and, in general, of whatsoever is good and venerable \*. And in this manner, if we may believe Antiquity, all their civil institutes were prefaced; its constant phrase being, when speaking of a Lawgiver, ΔΙΕΚΟΣΜΕΙ ΤΗΝ ΠΟΛΙΤΕΙΑΝ ΑΠΟ ΘΕΩΝ ΑΡΧΟΜΕΝΟΣ.

The only things of this kind now remaining, are the PREFACES to the laws of ZALEUCUS and CHARONDAS, Lawgivers of the Locrians and of the Chalcidic cities of Italy and Sicily, contemporaries with Lycurgus +. These, by good fortune, are preserved in Diodorus and Stobæus. A great Critic has indeed arraigned their authority; declared them spurious; and adjudged them for an imposture of the Ptolomaic Age 1. And were it as he supposes, the fragments would be rather stronger to our purpose: for, in that case, we must needs conclude, the very learned sophists who forged them had copied from the general practice of antiquity: And that very learned they were, appears both from the excellence of the composition, and the age of the pretended composers. Whereas, if the fragments be genuine, they do not so directly prove the universality, as the antiquity, of the practice. But as my aim is truth, and truth feeming to bear hard against this learned Critic's determination, we must hold to the common opinion, and examine what hath been offered in discredit of it.

The universal current of antiquity runs in favour of these remains, and for the reality of their author's legislative quality. Aristotle, Theophrastus, Tully, Diodorus Siculus, and Plutarch, the most learned and inquisitive writers of their several ages, declare for their being genuine. However, Timzus thought sit to deny that Zaleucus had given laws to the Locrians; nay, that there was

<sup>\*</sup> Διῖ τὸι τόμοι τὰ στηλ θιὸς τὰ δαίμοιας τὰ γονίας, τὰ καλὰ τὰ καλὰ τὰ τίμια σηῦτα τίθισθαι. Stob. de Rep. Serm. xli. p. 269. l. 13. Tiguri, fol. 1599.

<sup>†</sup> Arist, I. ii. c. 12. p. 449. Edit. Du Val.

<sup>1</sup> Differt. on the Epiftles of Phalaris, with an Answer to the objections of Mr. Boyle.

ever fuch a Lawgiver existing. We shall be the less surprised at this paradox, when we come to know the character and studies of the man: he was by profession an historian, but turned his talents to invent, to aggravate, and expose the faults and errors of all preceding writers of name and reputation. Polybius, Strabo, and Diodorus Siculus, three of the wifest and most candid historians of Greece, have concurred to draw him in the most odious colours. The first speaks of him in this manner: How be came to be placed amongst the principal writers of history, I know not .- He deserves neither credit nor pardon of any one; having so manifestly transgressed all the rules of decency and decorum in his excessive calumnies, springing from an innate malignity of heart\*. This envious rabid temper, joined to a perversity of mind, delighting in contradiction, gained him the title of EPITIMÆUS, the CALUMNIATOR. And, what is a certain mark of a base and abject heart, he was as excessive in his flattery; as when he makes Timoleon greater than the greatest Gods +. He took so much pleasure in contradicting the most received truths, that he wrote a long treatife, with great fury and ill language, to prove that the bull of Phalaris was a mere fable. And yet Diodorus and Polybius, who tell us this, tell us likewise, that the very bull itself was existing in their time: To all which, he was so little solicitous about truth, that Suidas says, he was nicknamed ΓΡΑΟΣΥΛΛΕΚΤΡΙΑ, a composer of old wives fables. Polybius informs us with what justice it was given him. In censuring the faults of others, he puts on fuch an air of severity and considence, as if be bimself were exempt from failings, and slood in no need of indulgence. Yet are his own histories stuffed with dreams and prodigies, with the most wild and improbable fables. In short, full of old wives

<sup>\*</sup> Οὐα οδό ὕτως ἐκφέριται δέξαν, ὡς ἔλαων τὰν τάτα συΓγραφέως αχοςασίαν, - Εκείτ δό δο οὐα εἰκότως τυΓχάνω συΓγνώμας ἀδὶ αύτιως ἐκτὰ ἀδινὸς, διὰ τὸ αχοφαιώς ἐν ταῖ; λοιδοχίαις ἐκπίπθει» τὰ κα ἡ ενθος, διὰ τὸ ἔμφυθο ανιχίαι. Εκτοτρε. ex l. xii. Hith.

<sup>†</sup> Suidas in Timzo. Tipaio di puisu wonis Topakielle ซนา อัสเจริมหาสาย อ.ล้า.

wonders, and of the lowest and basest superstition\*. Agreeable to all this, Clemens Alexandrinus gives him as the very pattern of a fabulous and fatyric writer. And he appeared in every respect of so ill a character to Mr. Bayle, that this excellent Critic did not scruple to fay, that, "in all appearance, he had no better authority " when he denied that Zaleucus had given laws to the Locrians +." To fay all in a word, he was the OLDMIXON ‡ of the Greeks; and yet this is the man whom the learned writer hath thought fit to oppose to all antiquity, against Zaleucus's legislation and existence. It appears the more extraordinary, because he himself hath furnished his reader with a violent presumption against Timæus's authority, where he fays §, That Polybius charges him with false representations relating to the Locrians. He adds indeed that nothing is now extant that shews Polybius thought Timæus mistaken concerning Zaleucus. But fince Polybius quotes a law as a law of Zaleucus, it seems a proof, in so exact a writer, of his being well assured that, amongst Timæus's falshoods concerning the Locrians, one was his denying Zaleucus to be their Lawgiver.

Timæus's reasons are not come down to us from Antiquity: But the fragments of Polybius ||, mentioning his outrageous treatment of Aristotle concerning the origin of the Locrians, speak of one Echecrates a Locrian, from whom Timæus boasted he had received information on certain points in question: Hence the learned Critic, as it would seem, concludes this to have been a part of the Locrian's intelligence, that there was no such man as Zaleucus\*\*. As if,

<sup>\*</sup> ΟὖτΦ γὰρ li μὶν ταῖς τῶν αθλας καθεθρίαις ακλλὰν ἐστφαίου ἐκνίτεθα κỳ τόλμαν ἐν δὶ ταῖς ἰδιαις ἐστφάσιου ἐκ ποίων κỳ τιράτων κỳ μυθῶν ἀποθάνων, κỳ συλλύθλει κỳ διουδαιμονίας ἀγονῶς κỳ τιραθείας ; γυναικώδες ἐκὶ ακάρες. Excerpt. de Virt. & Vit. ex 1. xii.

<sup>†</sup> Et apparemment il ne fut pas mieux fondé, quand il nia que Zaleucus eût donné des lôix à ce peuple, [les Locriens.] Timée, Rem. F.

<sup>1</sup> See Clarendon and Whitlock compared.

<sup>§</sup> Dissert. upon Phalaris, p. 337.

<sup>#</sup> Excerpta ex Polybio de Virt. & Vitiis, ex I. xii.

<sup>\*\*</sup> P. 336. Differt. upon Phalaris.

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because Timæus relied on Echecrates's information in the dispute between him and Aristotle, therefore Echecrates must, of necesfity, support all his paradoxes concerning that people. But admit Echecrates to have been of the same opinion with Timæus, in this matter; Is he, who, for aught we know, might be as fingular and as whimfical, in his love of contradiction, as Timæus himfelf, an evidence to be opposed to Cicero's? who tells us, that his Clients the Locrians had, in his time, a Tradition of Zaleucus's legislation \*. And we may well prefume, that Cicero, inquisitive, and even curious, as he was in matters of antiquity, would examine this point with care: and, had their archives reclaimed it, he had hardly thought it worth his while to mention their Tradition. the learned Critic, if Echecrates, in that age, did not believe there was any Zaleucus, be is certainly as credible as Cicero's Locrians. who came so many generations afterwards, after so many revolutions and changes in their Government +. This reasoning has small force, because, from the same premises, we may argue just the other way. and fay, that if the Tradition kept its ground through all those changes and revolutions of State, it would feem to have had a very strong foundation.

The authority then of Timæus against the existence and legislation of Zaleucus in general, is of no weight. Let us next see what the learned Critic hath to urge against the authenticity of those laws which go under Zaleucus's name. His arguments are of two sorts: the one drawn from the dialets, and from the use of several words, which are indeed later than his time; the other, from Zaleucus's being no Pythagorean.

1. The words objected to, are these; Λεπλας χ ωαχείας—ἰσομιλήσιον
—Κόσμον—Τραδφδίαις. This, and the fragments being written in the common dialect, instead of the Doric, are, in the Critic's opinion, sufficient evidence of the forgery.

<sup>\*</sup> De Legibus, l. ii. c. 6. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III. p. 141.

<sup>+</sup> P. 336. Dissert. upon Phalaris.

He has employed a deal of good \* learning, to prove the words to be all later than the time of Zaleucus.

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Let us see then the most that can be made of this fort of argument. And because it is the best approved, and readiest at hand, for the detection of forgery, and supposed by some not a little to affect the sacred writings themselves, we will enquire into its force in general.

It must be owned, that an instrument offered as the writing of any certain person, or age, which hath words or phrases posterior to its date, carries with it the decifive marks of forgery. A public Deed, or Diploma, so discredited, is lost for ever. And to such, was this canon of criticism first applied with great success. This encouraged following critics to try it on writings of another kind; and then, for want of a reasonable distinction, they began to make very wild work indeed. For though in compositions of abstract speculation, or of mere fancy and amusement, this touch might be applied with tolerable fecurity, there being, for the most part, no occasion or temptation to alter the diction of such writings, especially in the ancient languages, which suffered small and slow change, because one fort of these works was only for the use of a few learned men; and the principal rarity, and often the beauty, of the other fort, consisted in the original phrase; yet in public and practical writings of Law and Religion, this would be found a very fallacious test: It was the matter only which was regarded here. And, as the matter respected the whole people, it was of importance that the words and phrases should be neither obscure, ambiguous, nor equivocal: This would necessitate alterations in the style, both as to words and phrases. Hence it appears to me, that the answer, which commentators give to the like objection against the Pentateuch, is founded in good sense, and fully justified by the folution here attempted. The Religion, Law, and

<sup>\*</sup> From p. 346 to 356 of the Dissertation.

History of the Jews were incorporated; and consequently, it was the concern of every one to understand the Scriptures. Nor doth the superstitious regard, well known to have been long paid to the words, and even letters of scripture, at all weaken the force of this argument: for that superstition arose but from the time when the masoret doctors fixed the reading, and added the vowel points. I have taken the opportunity, the subject afforded me, to touch upon this matter, because it is the only argument of moment, urged by Spinosa, against the antiquity of the Pentateuch; on which antiquity the general argument of this work is supported,

The application of all this is very easy to the case in hand: The fragment of Zaleucus was part of a body of Laws, which the people were obliged to understand; so that a change of old words and obsolete phrases would be necessary: and to make this an argument against the antiquity of the fragment, would be the same good reasoning as to suppose, that the remains of the Twelve Tables, or the earlier laws in our common Statute books, were the forgeries of later times, because full of words unknown to the respective ages in which those laws were composed and enacted. But, indeed, the change of obscure words, or obsolete phrases, for others more clear and intelligible, was a common practice amongst the Pagan writers. Porphyry, making a collection of heathen oracles, professes to have given them just as he found them, without the least alteration; except, says he, changing an obscure word, now and then, for one more clear: a practice, which, for its fairness and frequency, he ranks with amending a corrupted word, or reforming the metre \*. But this licence was not confined to the Ancients; for, being encouraged by the reason of things, it was likely enough (as is, in fact, the case) that all times should

<sup>\*</sup> ἐπιὶ πάγώ τι θιὰς μαθρόςομαι, Σός ἐδὸν ὅτι ατριθόμικα, ὅτι ἀφιλον τῶν χεποθέθων ισυμάτων εἰ μά τω λέξιν ἡμαθριμένην λάςθωτα, ἡ ΠΡΟΣ ΤΟ ΣΛΦΕΣΤΕΡΟΝ ΜΕΤΑΒΕΒΛΗΚΑ, ἢ τὸ μεθρὸν ἐλλεῖτον ἀναλόμοσα, ὅτι τῶν μὰ πρὸς τὰν αχόθισεν συθκικόθων λάγχαιψα. Porph. apud Eufeb. Præp. Evang, lib iii. cap. 7.

afford examples of it. One of the editors of Froissart, speaking of his author's text, says, "touchant le stile, & ancienne maniere "d'escrire de nostre auteur, je ne doute point qu'il n'ayt esté « quelques autrefois changé & aucunement renouvellé selon les "temps "." All the Editions of Jonville's life of St. Louis bear testimony to the same practice; which was so general that Pasquier fays, "s'il y eut un bon livre composé par nos Ancêtres, lorsqu'il " fut question de le transcrire, les Copistes le copioient non selon la 46 naïfe langue de l'Auteur, ains selon la leur +."

As to the change of dialect, the great Critic thus expresses himself: The last argument I shall offer against the Laws of Zaleucus, is this, that the Preface of them, which Stobaus has produced, is writsen in the common dialect, whereas, it ought to be in the Doric, for that was the language of the Locri.—The Laws of Zaleucus therefore are commentitious, because they are not in Doric 1.

What hath been faid above will shew this argument to have small force; but it is urged with a peculiar ill grace by the learned Critic, who, in his differtation upon Phalaris, hath discovered, that Ocellus Lucanus wrote the treatise Of the nature of the universe in Doric §: and from thence rightly concludes, it ought to be acknowledged for a genuine work, which hitherto learned men have doubted of, from this very business of its being writ in the common dialect. For we now fee that every word of the true book is faithfully preserved; the Doric being only changed into the ordinary language, at the fancy of some copier ||. Now, furely, the rash suspicions of those learned men in the case of Ocellus Lucanus, should have made him more cautious in indulging his own. He should have concluded, if this liberty was taken with books of mere speculation, it was more likely to be indulged in works so necessary to be understood as a body of

<sup>\*</sup> Dennis Sauvage, Avertisement aux Lecteurs.

<sup>†</sup> Rech. L. viii. c. 3. ‡ P. 135, and 358.

P. 49. § P. 47.

laws; especially when he had observed (after Porphyry) that the Doric is always clouded with obscurity\*.

Hence, doubtless, trans-dialecting was no rare practice. For, besides this instance of Ocellus Lucanus, we have another, in the
poems going under the name of Orpheus: which, Jamblichus says,
were written in the Dorie dialect. But now the fragments of these
poems, lest us by those who did not write in Dorie, are in the common dialect. It is plain then, they have been trans-dialected.

2. The learned Critic's other argument for the imposture runs thus: The Report of Zaleucus being a Pythagorean, was gathered from some passages in the system of laws ascribed to him, for where else could they meet with it? so that, if it can be proved be was more ancient than Pythagoras, this false story of his being a Pythagorean being taken from that fystem, must convict it of being a cheat +. He then proceeds to prove him more ancient than Pythagoras; which he does, on the whole, with great force of learning and reasoning, though his arguments are not all equally well chosen. As where he brings this for a proof that Zaleucus was no scholar of Pythago-. ras, "Because he ascribed all his laws to Minerva, from whom he or pretended to receive them in dreams: which (in the learned "Critic's opinion) has nothing of a Pythagorean in it. For Py-"thagoras's scholars ascribed every thing to their master: it was " always autos "pa with them, be faid it. Therefore, if Zaleucus 44 had been of that fociety, he would certainly have honoured his " master, by imputing his laws to his instructions t." But this argument is of no weight: for, 1. From what has been faid above of the genius of ancient legislation, it appears, that the general practice required, and the nature of the thing disposed the Lawgiver to ascribe his laws to the inspiration of some God. 2. As to the famous airis "ou, it was not peculiar to the Pythagoreans, but common to all the sects of Greece, jurare in verba magistri. A de-

\* P. 317. † P. 337. † P. 338. X 2

vice to keep them distinct and separate from each other; and a compendious way of arguing amongst those of the same school. would then have been ridiculous to have urged its authority to any out of the fect; more so, to the common people; and most of all, to them, upon public and practical matters; the auros som being used only in points of speculation, and in the schools of philosophy. Indeed, so unlucky is this argument, that, on the contrary, the reader will be apt to conclude, that this very circumstance of Zaleucus's ascribing his laws to Minerva, was one of the things that gave rise and credit to the report of his being a Pythagorean. And, doubtless, it would have much weight with those who did not carefully enough attend to the chronology. For Zaleucus, in this, might be thought to follow both the example and the precept of Pythagoras, who himself pretended to be inspired by Minerva; and taught it to his scholars as the most efficacious way of establishing civil justice, to propagate the opinion of the Gods having an intimate intercourse with mankind \*.

But notwithstanding the defect of this argnment, the learned eritic, as we said, proves his point with great clearness, that Zaleucus was earlier than Pythagoras: and, in conclusion, draws the inference abovementioned, in these terms: It was generally reported Zaleucus was a Pythagorean; it is proved he was not. This will result the book itself. For if any intimation was given in the book that the author was a Pythagorean, the impossure is evident. "And yet it is hard to give any other reason, that should induce the later writers to call him a Pythagorean." Some impossor, therefore, made a system of laws under the name of Zaleucus, and in it gave a broad hint that he was a scholar of Pythagoreas.

Here he rests his point. If, then, it be not bard to give another reason, that should induce the later writers to call him a Pythagorean, his long discourse to prove Zaleucus the earlier of the two, is of no

<sup>\*</sup> See Jamblichus's Life of Pythagoras, p. 147. edit. Kuft.

kind of use to convict the pretended laws of imposture. I have already hinted at another not improbable reason, which was his having the same inspiring Goddess with Pythagoras: And this will be much strengthened by the observation, that Minerva became the peculiar patroness of the Pythagorean Lawgivers, on account of the affistance she had given to their master. To which we may add these further circumstances, that the laws were in Doric (and fuppoling them genuine, they certainly were fo) which idiom was peculiar to the Pythagoric school \*: and, that the whole proem of Zaleucus's laws was formed agreeably to the precepts of Pythagoras in this matter; who directs, that, next after the worship of the Gods, Dæmon, and Parent worship should be enjoined +. Now, later writers, seeing these two visible marks of a Pythagorean, might, without further reflexion, be reasonably disposed to think Zaleucus of that sect. But, as the learned critic has well made out, from fure chronological evidence, that this was a mistake, we must feek for some other cause of the uniformity between them; which I take to be this: Zaleucus, when Pythagoras flourished, was in the highest repute in Greece for legislation; which might incline this philosopher to imitate him, both in his inspiring Goddess, and in the proem of his laws: so that posterity only mistook the copy for the original. This they might very well do; for Pythagoras and his feet had foon engrossed all the glory in the practice of lawgiving: and this leads me to another probable cause of the common opinion of Zaleucus's being a Pythagorean: The character of this sect, as will be seen hereafter, was so great for legislation, that after-ages thought nothing could be done to purpose in that way, which had not a Pythagorean for its author. So, besides Zaleucus, the ancients supposed Charondas, Numa 1, Zamolxis §, Phytius, Theocles,

<sup>\*</sup> See note [B], at the end of this book.

<sup>🕇</sup> Milk એ જે ઉલાંક જા છું જે કેમામાં બાર, સોલાંક ક જાબા. કરીયા તેર્ક જુ જુ જુંબા. Jamb. Vit. Pyth. c. xxx. p. 148.

<sup>†</sup> Quinetiam arbitror propter Pythagereerum admirationem, Numam quoque regem Pythagereum à posterioribus existimatum. Tull, Tusc. Disp. lib. iv. c. 1. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. II. p. 331.

<sup>§</sup> Herod. I b. iv. c. 95. Edit. Gale.

Elicaon, Aristocrates, nay the very DRUIDS\*, the legislators of Gaul, and, in a word, all the eminent Lawgivers who lived any where about the time of Pythagoras, to be instructed by him. But will the learned Critic say, that, therefore, all these Legislators were imaginary persons, and did not give laws to their several cities? This notion, arising from Pythagoras's great character and reputation, was nursed up and improved by his followers themselves, to beget honour to their master; as, in fact, appears from several passages in Jamblichus's life of that Philosopher. So that was there no more in it than this; as Zaleucus's Institutions were in great repute, we might very naturally account for the mistake.

But, lastly, it is, indeed, very true, (as the learned Critic sufpected) that the principal ground of the report of Zaleucus being a Pythagorean, was from some passages in the system of laws ascribed to him. He is only too hasty in his conclusion, that therefore these must needs convict the system of a cheat. What hurried him on, was his supposing, that no such report could be gathered from passages in the fystem, but such as must be an intimation that the author was a Pythagorean: and that there is no difference between giving and taking an intimation. If, then, this report might be gathered from passages which contained no intimation, and if the reader might understand that to be such which the writer never intended; the consequence will be, that the credit of these fragments will remain unshaken, though we grant the learned Critic his whole premises. and all the facts he contends for.

It feems, then, to be certain, that the report of Zaleucus's being a Pythagorean arose principally from a passage in his system of laws. And it was not difficult to discover what it was. Zaleucus in his preface speaks of an EVIL GENIUS or Dæmon, AAI-MΩN KAKOΣ, as influencing men to wickedness. This, though a notion of the highest + antiquity, whose origin and author are much

<sup>\*</sup> Ammian. Marcell. lib. xv. c. 9. p. 75. Edit. Gronov. fol. 1693.

<sup>† &#</sup>x27;Aeisolidus d' in meury mist Gideordias, ni mpobolicus ilian (Mayus) run Alyonium ni dio nar' αίτὸς είναι ἀχχάς, ἀγαθὸ δαίμονα, εξ ΚΑΚΟΝ ΔΑΙΜΟΝΑ. Diog. Lacrt. Vit. Phil. Proæm. Seg. 8.

much disputed, yet became at length the distinguishing doctrine of the Pythagoreans. Plutarch, speaking of Pythagoras's opinion of the first principle, says, that that philosopher called the Monad, God, and Duad, the EVIL GENIUS \*. Which Duad the Pythagoreans used extremely to vilify, as the cause of all evil, under the name of the BAD PRINCIPLE, as Plutarch would make us believe +. The application of this doctrine I suppose Pythagoras might borrow from Zaleucus, and here again posterity be mistaken only in the original author. However, we may collect from the same Plutarch, that that opinion was cultivated by all the ancient Lawgivers. For this learned man, who favoured the notion of Two PRINCIPLES. the one good, the other evil, affects, I observe, to draw every ancient writer, who but mentions an evil damon, into his own sect. In his treatise of Isis and Osiris, he speaks to this purpose, "That "it was a most ancient opinion, delivered as well by LAWGIVERS " as Divines, that the world was neither made by Chance, neither "did one Cause govern all things, without opposition 1."

Edit." Amstel. 1692, 410. Οὐα οἶδα μὰ τῶν ΠΑΝΥ ΠΑΛΑΙΩΝ τῶν ἀτοπύταθεν ἀναγασσθῶμεν στροσδίχισθαι λόγον ὑς τὰ Φαϋλα δαιμένια κὰ βάσκανα, αξοσφθουῶιθα τοῖς ἀγαθοῖς ἀνδεάσιν κὰ ταῖς αρόξισιν ἀνικάμενα, ταξαχὰ; κὰ Φίδυ; ἐπάγει, σείοθα κὰ σφάλλοθα τὰν ἀξετάν ὡς μὰ διαμείκαθες ἀνδύτες ἐν τῷ καλῷ κὰ ἀκείραιοι, βελίίοτ& ἐκείνων μείξας μεθά τὰν τελευθὰν τύχωσεν Plut. Vita Dionis, in initio.

\* 11:θαγόςας τῶι ἀςχῶν τὰν μὸν μοπάθα θιὸν, κὰ τ' ἀγαθὸν ὕτις ἐκὶν ἡ τῶ ἐνὸς φύσις, αὐτὸς ὁ ιῶς τὰν δ' ἀόριςοι διάθα, ΔΑΙΜΟΝΑ, κὰ τὸ ΚΑΚΟΝ, συρὶ ἥν ἐκι τὸ ὑλικὸν «λῶθ». De Plac. Phil. lib. i. c.; 7. p. 1624. E. S. (T. II. p. 881. D. Edit. Francof. 1599, fol.)

† Οἱ μὶν Πιθαγορικοὶ διὰ πλειόνων ὁνομάτων κατηδρίδο, τὰ μὶν ἀγαθῦ τὸ ἐν πιπερασμένον, τὸ μένος, τὸ ιδθὸ, τὸ πιρερσών, τὸ τέξάγωνον, τὸ λιξιὸν, τὸ λαμπρόν τὰ δὶ ΚΑΚΟΥ, τὰν ΔΥΑΔΑ, τὸ ἄπισρον, τὸ τερόμενον, τὸ περασμένον, τὸ ἀρίσιος τὸ ἀρισιος, τὸ ἀρισιος τὸ ἀρισιος τὸ σκολικόν ἔνε ταύτας ἀρχὰς γενίσεως ὑποιειμένας Περὶ ΣΣ. κỳ ΟΣΙΡ. p. 660. St. Ed. I suppose the reason, why Δυὰς was amongst the ill names said to be given by the Pythagoreans, to the bad principle, was, because, in their superstitious designations of the various qualities of numbers, this Δυὰς is very heavily loaded. "Οτι ὰ μὶν ΜΟΝΑΣ καθὰ τὰν ἐσότεθα κỳ τὸ μέτρο λαμδάνεται ὰ δὶ Δυὰς καθ' ὑπερεδολὰν κỳ ἱλλειφου. Anon. de Vita Pythag, apud Photium. Edit. Hæschelii, fol. 1612. pag. 1314.

‡ Διό મું જમામ માં તાલ માં માં માં છાલ્યા મું ભાગ મું ΝΟΜΟΘΕΤΩΝ—એς હૈંદ તેમા મું તેમાન મું તેમા મું તેમાન મું તેમા

This notion therefore, delivered in the proem of Zaleucus's law, might be very well taken for an intimation of the author's being a Pythagorean, and yet, not being so given, it has not the least tendency to discredit the compilation.

On the whole then, I presume, it appears, that the credit of these remains stands unshaken by any thing the learned Critic has advanced to the contrary; and that we may safely produce them as of the antiquity they lay claim to.

Thus Zaleucus begins his preface: " Every inhabitant, whether " of town or country, should first of all be firmly persuaded of 46 the being and existence of the Gods: which belief he will be " readily induced to entertain, when he contemplates the heavens, 46 regards the world, and observes the disposition, order, and har-"mony of the universe; which can neither be the work of blind " chance, nor of man. These Gods are to be worshipped as the " cause of all the real good we enjoy. Every one therefore should " so purify, and possess his mind, as to have it clear of all kinds of evil; 66 being persuaded that God is not honoured by a wicked person, nor 44 acceptably ferved, like miferable man, with fumptuous ceremo-" nies, or taken with costly facrifices, but with Virtue only, and es a constant disposition to good and just actions. On which ac-66 count, every one should labour all he can to become good, both " in practice and principle, whereby he will render himself dear 44 and acceptable to God; should fear more that which leads to 44 ignominy and dishonour, than that which leads to loss of wealth 44 and fortune; and esteem him the best Citizen, who gives up his 46 worldly goods, rather than renounce his honesty and love of 46 justice: But those, whose headstrong appetites will not suffer them "to be restrained within the limits of these things, and whose 66 hearts are turned with a natural bias towards evil, whether they 46 be men or women, citizens or fojourners, should be told, to have 46 the Gods always in mind, to think upon their nature, and of the " judgments they have in store for wicked men; to fet before them-" schoes

" felves the dreadful bour of death, a period they must all arrive at; when the memory of evil actions past will seize the sinner with remorse, accompanied with the fruitless wish, that he had submitted his actions to the rules of justice. Every one, therefore, should so watch over his behaviour, as if that hour were still present with him, and attended all his motions: which will be the way to keep up in himself an exact regard to right and justice. But if the wicked Demon be instant to influence him to evil, let him sly to the altars and temples of the Gods, as the surest asylum from that cruelest and wickedest of tyrants, Evil, and implore their assistance to drive her far from him. To this end, let him also have recourse to those, whose reputations are high for probity and virtue ; whom he may hear discourse of the happiness of good, and the vengeance attending evil men +."

\* Meaning the men set apart for the service of religion, such as Virgil describes in his Elysium, Æneid. L. vi. p. 265. l. 21. Edit. Venet. 8vo, 1638.

Quique sacerdotes caili, dum vita manebat;

Quique pii vates & Phæbo digna locuti.

Which not only shews the Legislator's sense of their use, but of the necessity of their practiting what they teach to others.

شيهه كيزجيه الدين فوهدن، بني خاه مزجهين, بني خيَّه نه هذخير المعدن بسمت ، بني خشره . بن چند خرجيء بناءً شياونجه စဉ်ကေး စီရှာလမျာရှိမှာပါတ တပ်ပ်တပါလ စီး အမ်အမှ ၍ အမှာတီစ, မိန့် လေးလေ့ စီဂါတွေ ဆိုအခါမှာ ရဲမှာလိမ်ချာ အာမြေ လည်ခတ γρίομέτες. Εκαγοι δι έχτιν κὲ σαγασκινάζειι δεί τὰι σύτε ψυχὰι, σάθαι τῶι κατῶι καθαγάι' ὡς ὡ τιμάτει. Βιλς δπ' ἀιθεύπυ Φαύλυ, όδὶ Βιεαπιύεται δαπάιαις, ύδι τεαίρδίαις τῶν ἀλισκομίνων, καθάπιρ΄ µ၀γှင်ရသုံး စီးပြုမπ⊕, စီညီ\ ထို၍ရှိ သို့ ဇာလုထုရုန်သေ အမိုး အစည်မှာ နဲ့ပြုမှာ သို့ မိုးစစ်မှာ. ထိုလို မိုးစေတော် မိန် မိန့် စီမိုးစာမှုမှာ စီအွစ်အုံး eines, nj mpáfu nj meanciou ròs púbbonia iorosan Inopoda nj po pobolodan rai si; grápara ζαμίας μάλλος τὸς είς αίσχύςς τεινόςτων સે જολίτας άμοίνοια όνομάζεις τὸς τὰς ὑσίας જρεϊίμενος μάλλος τὰ καλά డెక్ట్ పుడ్డా అజిల్లు సినీట్ అడేలు శార్య శార్జుకార్య అందికాడ్యు, ప్లే అందికార్యా ప్లే కారుకుల్య బ్రాబికానడు తీసే హేకేవ్యా శ్రీ केंद्रबद् दिराक्षण्यानीक राजेंद्र केंद्रीसकद् ह्ये राशिकीया करते हैद्दार्वरका रहेग यवादी राजेंपण, तेर हुँ पूर्वराया रहे रातिक वैयर्करक् न्हेंदु केंद्रक्र २२ क्लेंदु रखें देंहि? कावेंद्रा कृष्टे हैमर्वार्ता। धारवार्धिताक रखेंद्र धारिशकत राधियार्थित प्रधारार्थित केंद्र केंद्रेवर्वयवात κὶ όρμὸ τὰ βύλισθαι Φάνια αυτεάχθαι δικαίως αίτοῖς. Διὸ δεί εκατον ακρ' έκάτης αξάξις ἀεί συσεκτιών vò naigò vières, és de magilla. Eve yàs de hadisa viè undu il viè de dischie làs de ve majar? AAIMAN KAKOE teitur opis ädniar dalpibur opis vasis zi Bupsis zi tepinor, Grigula tir ädrist nt gianten materatur of Naviangerat irilitiele auft gint antarificate upatet inn ge if alet guber हेर्दिक हिंदुकोसर क्षेत्र के के के कि हिंदू के स्वराधिक का हो के के स्वर्धिक के स्वर्धिक का का के का के का कि adino felor. Apud Stobzum, Serm. xlii. p. 279. lin. 13. Tiguri, fol. 1559.

One would wonder, that any man, who had attentively considered this admirable fragment, could think it the forgery of a Sophist. It is plain, the author of it understood human nature and fociety at another rate. He hath not only given us an exact portrait of natural Religion; but, in applying it to the State, hath explained the use and subserviency of its parts to the three great classes of mankind. He hath recommended the intrinsic excellence of virtue, and compliance with the Will and example of the Gods, to those who are of so ingenuous and well framed a nature as to be always disposed to embrace truth and right: to others, of a less heroic turn of mind, fuch who idolize their bonour, he holds out fame and ignominy, as the inseparable attendants of good and evil actions: and, to the common run of more intractable and perverse tempers, he preaches up the doctrine of future rewards and punishments \*. I will only observe, it appears to have been from hence, that Pomponatius borrowed the beautiful passage, which is quoted at large, in the first book of this discourse.

Thus ZALEUCUS. And much in the fame fashion does CHA-RONDAS introduce his Laws.

In imitation of the practice, Plato likewise, and Cicero both preface their Laws with the sanctions of Religion. And though these two great men were not, strictly speaking, Lawgivers in form; yet we are not to suppose that what they wrote in this science, was like the dreams of the Sophists, for the amusement of the idle and curious. They were both well practised in affairs, and deeply conversant in human nature; and they formed their speculative Institutes on the plan, and in the spirit and views of ancient legislation: the soundation of Plato's being the Attic Laws; and the soundation of Cicero's, the Twelve Tables: who himself takes care to warn us of this particular. "In imitation of Plato, the most search, and, at the same time, the wisest of the philosophers, who wrote best + of a republic, and likewise, separately, of the

<sup>\*</sup> See no e C, at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> I read here, with Turnebus, qui princeps de rep. conferipfit. Lambin objects to this reading, because we gather from Aristotle, that Plate was not the first who wrote of a republic;

"s laws thereof, I think it will be proper, before I give the law it"s felf", to say somewhat in recommendation of it: which, I ob"s ferve, was the method of Zaleucus and Charondas. For their
"s system of laws was not an exercise of wit, or designed for the
"s amusement of the indolent and curious, but composed for the use
"s of the public in their several cities. These, Plato imitated; as
"s thinking this likewise to be the business of Law; to gain some"s what of its end by the gentler methods of persuasion, and not
"s carry every thing by mere force and fear of punishment +."

he supposing princeps signified primus, whereas it means optimus. This was Tully's opinion of Plato, as may be gathered from many places in his writings. And in this sense, Turnebus, without doubt, understood the word; a sense sample sample of primes as in Per. lib. iv. cap. 49. 44 in qua [Patria] multis virtutibus & beneficiis storuit PRENCEPS." But the word primus itself is sometimes used in this sense of princeps; as in Virgil,

Prima quod ad Trojam-----

\* "Ut priusquam ipsam legem recitem, de ejus legis laude dicam." This passage is not without its difficulty. If by Lex be meant the whole system of his laws, which the tenor of the discourse leads one to suppose; then, by Laus, the recommendation of it, we are to understand his shewing, as he does in the following chapter, that the Gods interested themselves very much in the observance of civil laws; which implies, that they were indeed their laws: and so Tully calls them, in the 4th chapter of this book:

"Ita principem legem illam, & ultimam, mentem esse dicebant, omnia ratione aut co"gentis, aut vetantis Dei; ex qua illa lex quam Dii humano generi dederunt, recter

the Laudata." And the shewing that civil laws came originally from the Gods, was the highest recommendation of them. But if by Lex we are to understand only the stress law of the system, which begins, "Ad Divos adeunto caste," &c. then by Laus is meant his shewing, as he does likewise in the following chapter, the use and service of religion to civil society.

† Sed, ut vir doctifimus secit Plato, atque idem gravissmus philosophorum omnium, qui princeps de republica conscripsit, idemque separatim de legibus ejus, id mihi credo esse faciendum; ut priusquam ipsam legem recitem, de ejus legis laude dicam. Quod idem & Zaleucum & Charondam secisse video; cum quidem illi non studii & delectationis, sed reipublicæ causa leges civitatibus suis scripserunt. Quos imitatus Plato, videlicet hoc quoque legis putavit esse, persuadere aliquid, non omnia vi ac minis cogere. De Legg. lib. ii. cap. 6. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III. p. 141.

Here.

Here, we see, he intimates, that Plato and himself had the same view, in writing laws, with Zaleucus and Charondas: namely, the service of a Public. The difference between them was, that the two Originals were employed by their country; and the two Copiests generously undertook an office they were not called to.

However, Plato and Cicero are the greatest authorities antiquity could afford, and the most deserving to be heard in this matter. Plato makes it the necessary introduction to his laws, to establish the being and providence of the Gods by a law against SACRILEGE. And he explains what he means by facrilege, in the following words: "Either the denial of the being of the Gods; or, if that be owned, "the denial of their providence over men; or, thirdly, the teach-44 ing, that they are flexible, and easy to be cajoled by prayer and "facrifice "." And afterwards; "It is not of small consequence, "that what we here reason about the Gods, should, by all means, 46 be made probable; as, that they ARE; and, that they are GOOD; 46 and that their concern for justice takes place of all other human-66 considerations. For this, in our opinion, seems to be the noblest " and best PREFACE that can be made to a body of laws +." In compliance with this declaration, Cicero's Preface to his laws, is conceived in the following terms: " Let our citizen then be first of all 46 firmly perfuaded of the government and dominion of the Gods; " that they are the lords and masters of the world; that all things " are disposed by their power, direction, and providence; and that 46 the whole race of mankind is in the highest manner indebted to "them; that they are intimately acquainted with every one's state 46 and condition; that they know what he does, what he thinks; with

<sup>\*</sup> and it of the tipe market, it tiere. It is it

<sup>†</sup> διαφίρει δ' ώ σμικρόν άμωσγέτως απθακέτηθά του τός λόγας ήμων έχεια, ώς θεοί τ' είσε, κή αγαθοί, διαιο τομώνες διαφερόντως άιθρώπων σχοδόν γάρ τώνο ήμω ύπερ άπείεδου των νομών κάλλικόν το κή αξοκου προύμων άν είν. Id. ibid.

"what disposition of mind, and with what degree of piety he per-" forms the acts and offices of religion; and that, accordingly, they " make a distinction between the good and bad. The mind being " imbued with these opinions, will never deviate from TRUTH 44 and UTILITY. And what truth is more evident than this, that "no one should be so stupidly arrogant, as to suppose, there is "Mind and Reason in himself, and yet none in the Heavens and 46 the World; or, that those things, whose uses and directions can " scarce be comprehended with the utmost stretch of human fa-44 culties, may yet perform their motions without an understanding "Ruler? But, He whom the courses of the heavenly bodies, the 46 vicissitudes of day and night, the orderly temperature of the " seasons, and the various bleffings which the earth pours out for "our fustenance and pleasure, will not excite, nay compel to gra-44 titude, is unfit even to be reckoned in the number of men. And 44 fince things endowed with reason, are more excellent than those " which want it; and that it is impiety to fay, any particular is " more excellent than the universal Nature: we must needs confess "this Nature to be endowed with reason. That these opinions are " likewise useful, who can deny, when he considers what stability 46 is derived to the Public from within, by the religion of an oath; 44 and what fecurity it enjoys from without, by those holy rites "which affirm national treaties and conventions: how efficacious 44 the fear of divine punishment is, to deter men from wickedness: " and what purity of manners must reign in that Society, where 44 the immortal Gods themselves are believed to interpose both as " judges and witnesses? Here you have the PROEM of the law: for " fo Plato calls it "."

And.

<sup>•</sup> Sit igitur jam hoc a principio persuasum civibus, dominos esse omnium rerum ac moderatores Deos, eaque quæ gerantur, corum geri, ditione, ac numine, cosdemque optime de genere hominum mereri; & qualis quisque sit, quid agat, quid in se admittar, qua meate, qua pietate colat religiones, intueri; piorumque & impiorum habere ratio-

And then follow the laws themselves; the first of which is conceived in these words: "Let those who approach the Gods, be pure" and undefiled; let their offerings be seasoned with piety, and all softentation of pomp omitted: the God himself will be his own avenger on transgressors. Let the Gods, and those who were ever reckoned in the number of Celestials, be worshiped; and those likewise, whom their merits have raised to heaven; such as Her- cules, Bacchus, Æsculapius, Castor, Pollux, and Ro- mulus. And let chapels be erected in honour to those qualities, by whose aid mortals arrive thither, such as Reason, Virtue, Piety, and Good-faith."

## SECT. IV.

THE NEXT step the Legislator took, was to support and affirm the general doctrine of a Providence, which he had delivered in his laws, by a very circumstantial and popular method of inculcating the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments.

nem. His enim rebus imbutæ mentes, haud sane abhorrebunt ab utili, & a vera sententia. Quid est enim verius, quam neminem esse oportere tam stulte arrogantem, ut in se rationem & mentem putet inesse, in cælo mundoque non putet? aut ut ea, quæ vix summa ingenii ratione comprehendat, nulla ratione moveri putet? Quem vero astrorum ordines, quem dierum noctiumque vicissitudines, quem mensium temperatio, quemque ea, quæ gignuntur nobis ad fruendum, non gratum esse cogant, hunc hominem omnino numerari qui decet? Cumque omnia, quæ rationem habent, præstent iis, quæ sint rationis expertia, nesasque sit dicere, ullam rem præstare naturæ omnium rerum: rationem inesse in ea consitendum est. Utiles esse autem opiniones has, quis neget, cum intelligat, quam multa sirmentur jurejurando, quantæ salutis sint sæderum religiones, quam multos divini supplicii metus a scelere revocarit; quamque sancta sit societas civium inter ipsos, Diis immortalibus interpositis tum judicibus tum testibus. Habes legis proæmium; sic enim hoc appellat Plato. De Legg. lib. ii. c. 7. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III. p. 141, 42.

\* Ad divos adeunto caste; pietatem adhibento; opes amovento. Qui secus faxit, Deus ipse vindex erit.——Divos, & eos qui cœlestes semper habiti, colunto: & ollos, quos endo cœlo merita vocaverint, Herculem, Liberum, Æsculapium, Castorem, Pollucem, Quirinum. Ast olla, propter quæ datur homini adscensus in cœlum, mentem, virtutem, pietatem, sidem, earumque laudum delubra sunto. De Legg. lib. ii. c. 8. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III. p. 142, 43.

This was by the institution of the MYSTERIES, the most facred part of pagan Religion; and artfully framed to strike deeply and forcibly into the minds and imaginations of the people.

I propose, therefore, to give a full and distinct account of this whole matter: and the rather, because it is a thing little known or attended to: the Ancients, who wrote expressy on the Mysteries, such as Melanthius, Menander, Hicesius, Sotades, and others, not being come down to us. So that the modern writers on this subject are altogether in the dark concerning their origine and end; not excepting Meursius himself: to whom, however, I am much indebted, for abridging my labour in the search of those passages of antiquity, which make mention of the ELEUSINIAN Mysteries, and for bringing the greater part of them together under one view \*.

To avoid ambiguity, it will be proper to explain the term. Each of the pagan Gods had (besides the public and open) a fecret worship + paid unto him: to which none were admitted but those who had been selected by preparatory ceremonies, called INITIATION. This fecret worship was termed the MYSTERIES.

But though every God had, besides his open worship, the secret likewise; yet this latter did not every where attend the former; but only there, where he was the patron God, or in principal esteem. Thus, when in consequence of that intercommunity of paganism, which will be explained hereaster, one nation adopted the Gods of another, they did not always take in at the same time, the secret worship or Mysteries of that God: so, in Rome, the public and open worship of Bacchus was in use long before his Mysteries were admitted. But, on the other hand again, the worship of the strange God was sometimes introduced only for the sake of his Mysteries:

<sup>·</sup> Eleufinia: sive de Cereris Eleusinæ sacro.

<sup>†</sup> Strabo, in his tenth book of his Geography, p. 716, Gron. Ed. writes thus: Kundr di tüto, ng tün 'Eλλέπαι ng tün βαφέλφων έρλ, τὸ τὰς ἰφοποιίας μέλι ἀνίσταις ἰφθασικός συπίσθαι, τὰς μίν σύν ἰνθασιασμή, τὰς di χυρίς πρί ταϊς μέν μιὰ μυσικός, τὰς di μά. ΚΑΙ ΤΑΣ ΜΕΝ ΜΥΣΤΙ-ΚΩΣ, ΤΑΣ ΔΕ ΕΝ ΦΑΝΕΡΩι ng τὰθ' à φέσει στος ἐπαδοριένι.

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as, in the same city, that of Isis and Osiris. Thus stood the case in general; the particular exceptions to it, will be seen in the sequel of this differtation.

The first and original Mysteries, of which we have any sure account, were those of Iss and Osiris in EGYPT; from whence they were derived to the GREEKS\*, under the presidency of various Gods +, as the institutor thought most for his purpose: Zoroaster brought them into Persia: Cadmus and Inachus into Greece at large ‡; Orpheus into Thrace: Melampus into Argis; Trophonius into Bœotia; Minos into Crete; Cinyras into Cyprus; and Erechtheus into Athens. And as in Egypt they were to Iss and Osiris; so in Asia they were to Mithras; in Samothrace to the Mother of the Gods; in Bœotia to Bacchus; in Cyprus to Venus; in Crete to Jupiter; in Athens to Ceres and Proserpine; in Amphisia to

Book II.

<sup>\*</sup> Diod. Sic. lib. i. Eudoxus faid, as Plutarch informs us, that the Egyptians invented this fable concerning Jupiter Ammon, or the Supreme God, -That his Legs being unseparated, very shame drove him into solitude; but that Isis split and divided them, and by that means fet him at liberty to walk about the World. Oach well to Arie & Eilefes, μυθολογιῖν Αἰγυτίθες, ὡς τῶν σπελῶν συμφειθυκέτων αὐτῷ μὰ δυνάμενος βαδίζειν, ὑτ' αἰσχύνες, ἰχυμία λίτμδιν. "Η & "Ισις λατιμύσα κ) δας ήσασα τὰ μέρι ταῦτα τῷ σύματος, ἀρτίποδα, τὰ πορίαι παρίσχου. De If. &. Offr. Vol. I. pag. 670. Edit. Steph. 8vo. The moral of the fable is plainly this, as we shall see more plainly hereafter, That the FIRST CAUSE was kept unknown, till the Egyptian Mysteries of Isis revealed him amongst their a refifile; which Mysteries were communicated to the Greeks, and, through them, to the rest of mankind. But the Image under which the fable is conveyed, was taken from the form of the Egyptian Statues of the Gods, which the workmen made with their Legs undivided. When the Greek Artists first shewed them how to form their Gods in a walking Posture, the attitude so alarmed their Worshipers, that they bound them with Chains, lest they should desert their own Country. For the People imagined that their Gods, on the least ill humour or disgust, had a strange propensity to shew them a fair pair of heels.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Oτι δί τῶν Διονυσίων, υζ τῶν Παναθηναίων, υζ μίθω τῶν Θισμοφορίων, υζ τῶν Ἑλιυσιών τὰς τυλιlàς Ἰορούς, ἀνὰς Ἰοδρύσης, εἰς τὰς Ἰλθύνας ἐνόμισω, υζ εἰς ΛΙΓΥΠΤΟΝ ἀφικόμει», τὰ τῆς Ἰσιδία τὰ τὰ Ἰοσίμδια εἰς τὰ τῆς Δοῦς τὰ τὰ Διονύσω μεθαθέθεται ὑρία. Theodoretus, Therapeut. i.

<sup>1</sup> Έκιτθει δι άρχλι έσχε τὰ στερ "Ελλησι μυτάριά τι κὰ τιλιθεί σερίτερο στερ ΑΙΓΤΙΙΤΙΟΙΣ, κὰ στικά Φρυξί, κὰ Φοικξί, κὰ Βαθυλονίοις, κακῶς ἐποιοιοιμείτα μελικχθείδα τι εἰς Ελλητας ἀπὸ τῶς τῶν ΑΙΓΤΙΙΓΙΩΝ χώρας ἐπὸ Κάθμυ κὰ αὐτῦ τῶ Ἰιάκυ. "Απεθώ σερίτεροι κλυθείθώ, κὰ οἰκοδυμάτανθώ τὰν Μέμφω. Ερίγολαι. αλν. Ηπετ. lib. i. Ηπετεί, iv.

Castor and Pollux; in Lemnos to Vulcan, and so to others, in other places, the number of which is incredible \*.

But their end, as well as nature, was the fame in all; to teach the doctrine of a future state. In this, Origen and Celfus agree; the two most learned writers of their several parties. The first, minding his adversary of the difference between the future life promised by the Gospel, and that taught in Paganism, bids him compare the Christian doctrine with what all the sects of Philosophy, and all the Mysteries, amongst Greeks and Barbarians, taught concerning it +: And Celfus, in his turn, endeavouring to shew that christianity had no advantage over paganism in the efficacy of stronger sanctions, expresses himself to this purpose: "But now, after all, just as you believe eternal punishments, so do the Ministers of the sacred rites, and those who initiate into, and preside in the Mysteries!"

They continued long in religious reverence: fome were more famous and more extensive than others; to which many accidents concurred. The most noted were the Orphic, the Bacchic, the Eleusinian, the Samothracian, the Cabiric, and the Mithriac.

<sup>\*</sup> Postulat quidem magnitudo materiæ, atque ipsius desensionis ossicium, ut similiter ceteras turpitudinum species persequamur: vel quas produnt antiquitatis historiæ, vel mysteria illa continent sacra, quibus initiis nomen est, & quæ non omnibus vulgo, sed paucorum taciturnitatibus tradi licet. Sed Sacrorum innumeri ritus, atque assixa desormitas singulis, corporaliter prohibet universa nos exequi. Arnob. adv. Gentes, lib. v. p. 165. Edit. Plantini, 8vo, 1582.

<sup>† --</sup> Καθ' ἰκάς το φιλοσόφων αίζετου ἐι Ελλησου ἃ Βάρδαςοις ἃ ΜΥΣΤΗΡΙΩΔΗ. Orig. cont. Celf. lib. iii. p. 160. Sp. Ed.

<sup>\*</sup> Mática μλν, ὁ βίλτισε, ἄσπες σὸ αιλάσεις αἰωίως τεμίζως ὅτω κỳ οἱ τῶν ἰκοίνων ἰξιδιταὶ τελισκέ τε κỳ μυταδιγοί, lib. viii. p. 408. And that nothing very heterodox was taught in the mysteries concerning a future state, I collect from the answer Origen makes to Celsus, who had preferred what was taught in the Mysteries of Bacchus on that point, to what the Christian Religion revealed concerning it—αιρὶ μὸν δυ τῶν Βακχοιῶν τελέιῶν εἶτε τὶς ἐγι ανέπολς λόγΦ, εἶτε μαδιὸς τοῦς Φ—lib. iv. p. 167.

Euripides makes Bacchus say, in his tragedy of that name \*, that the Orgies were celebrated by all foreign nations, and that he came to introduce them amongst the Greeks. And it is not improbable, but feveral barbarous nations might have learned them of the Egyptians long before they came into Greece. The Druids of Britain, who had, as well as the Brachmans of India, divers of their religious rites from thence, celebrated the Orgies of Bacchus, as we learn from Dionysius the African. And Strabo hazing quoted Artemidorus for a fabulous story, subjoins, "But what he says of Ceres 44 and Proferpine is more credible, namely, that there is an island " near Britain, where they perform the same rites to those two "Goddesses as are used in Samothrace +." But, of all the Mys-TERIES, those which bore that name, by way of eminence, the ELEUSINIAN, celebrated at Athens in honour of Ceres, were by far the most renowned; and, in course of time, eclipsed, and almost swallowed up the rest. Their neighbours round about very early practifed these Mysteries to the neglect of their own: in a little time all Greece and Asia Minor were initiated into them: and at length they spread over the whole Roman empire, and even beyond the limits of it. "I infift not," fays Tully, " on those facred and " august rites of ELEUSIS, where, from the remotest regions, men " came to be initiated ‡." And we are told in Zosimus, that "these most holy rites were then so extensive, as to take in the " whole race of mankind §." Aristides calls Eleusis, the common semple of the earth ||. And Pausanias says, the rites performed there

<sup>\*</sup> Act. II.

<sup>🕂</sup> Πιρί δε της Δημηίς 🕒 της κόςτις Φιρότες α. ότι Φασίν είναι νήσου Φρός τη Βρετίανική, καθ ήν ομοια τοῖ; ir Σαμοθεκίκη σεεὶ τὰν Δήμηθεαν κὴ τὰν Κόςην ireowordtar. Strabonis Geogr. lib. iv. p 137. lin, 26. Edit. Casaub. The nature of these Samothracian rites is explained afterwards.

<sup>1</sup> Omitto Eleveinam fanctem illam & augustam : ubi initiantur gentes orarum ultimæ. Nat. Deor. lib. i. c. 42. Edit. Ox. 4º. T. ii. p. 432.

<sup>§</sup> Τὰ συτίχεδο τὸ ἀτθεύπτιος μέτΦ ἀγιώταθα μυτήρια. lib. iv.

<sup># &</sup>quot;Opic à κοιών τι της γής τίμιι την Ελευσίδα άγκιτο. Aristidis Eleusinia, in initio.

for the promotion of piety and virtue, as much excelled all other rites, as the Gods excelled the Heroes\*.

How this happened, the nature and turn of the People, who introduced these Mysteries, will account for. Athens was a city the most devoted to Religion of any upon the face of the earth. On this account their poet Sophocles calls it the facred building of the Gods +, his figure of speech alluding to its sabulous soundation. Nor was it a less compliment St. Paul intended to pay the Athenians, when he said, "Ardres Abnraios, kata ward ward is describationers speech speech the most religious people of Greece &. Hence, in these matters, Athens became the pattern and standard to the rest of the world.

In discourting, therefore, of the MYSTERIES in general, we shall be forced to take our ideas of them chiefly from what we find practited in the *Eleufinian*. Nor need we fear to be mistaken; the END of all being the same, and all having their common ORIGINAL from Egypt.

To begin with the general purpose and design of their Institution. This will be understood, by shewing what they communicated promiscuously to all.

To support the doctrine of a providence, which, they taught, governed the world ||, they inforced the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments \*\*, by every fort of contrivance. But

<sup>\*</sup> Οι γὰρ ἀρχαιότεροι τῶν Ἑλλύνων τελοτὰν τὰν Ἑλευσνίαν σαίδιον ὁπότα ἐς εὐσίδιαν ἔτει, τονύτο ἔγοι ἐιλιμότεραν, ὅσω κὰ τὰς θιὰς ἐπιπεροσθίν ὑρών. Phocics, l. x. c. 31. p. 876. In this elegant fimilitude he feems plainly to allude to the fecret of the mysteries; which, as we shall fee, confisted in an explanation of the origin of hero-worship, and the nature of the deity.

<sup>†</sup> Electra, act. ii. fc. i. Aohnan tan beoamhtan.—

<sup>.‡</sup> Act. Apost. xvii. az.

<sup>§ —</sup>ιδουδικάτυς τῶν Ἑλλήνον ἄπαιθες λίγυσου Cont. Ap. lib. ii. tom. II. edit. Oxon. folio, 1720. cap. 15. pag. 1373. lin. 12.

<sup>#</sup> Plutarch. de If. & Ofir.

<sup>\*\* [</sup>Mysteriis] neque solum, &c.—Sed etiam cum spr MELICAE MCRIENDI. Tull. d Legg. lib. ii. c. 14. Edit. Ox. 4°. t. 111. p. 148.

as this did not quite clear up the intricate ways of Providence, they added the doctrine of a MRTEMPSYCHOSIS, or the belief of a prior flate: as we learn from Cicero, and Porphyry \*; the latter of whom informs us, that it was taught in the Mysleries of the Pertian Mithras. This was an ingenious folution, invented by the Egyptian Lawgivers, to remove all doubts concerning the moral attributes of God +; and so, by adding a prior to a future flate, to establish the firm belief of his Providence. For the Lawgiver well knew how precarious that belief was, while the moral attributes of God remained doubtful and uncertain.

In cultivating the doctrine of a future life, it was taught, that the Initiated should be happier in that state than all other mortals: that while the souls of the profane, at their leaving the body, stuck fast in mire and filth, and remained in darkness, the souls of the Initiated winged their slight directly to the happy islands, and the habitations of the Gods ‡. This doctrine was as necessary for the support of the Mysteries, as the Mysteries were for the support of the doctrine. But now, lest it should be mistaken, that initiation alone, or any other means than a virtuous life, intitled men to this suture happiness, the Mysteries openly proclaimed it as their chief business, to restore the soul to its original purity. "It was the end and design of initiation," says Plato, 1" to restore the soul to that state, from whence it fell, as from its native seat of perfection §."

<sup>\*</sup> Kal γάρ Μίμα wásler irì του ωρύτω, τὸ ΜΕΤΕΜΥΥΧΩΣΙΝ είναι\* δ τζ Ιμφαίνειν δοίκαση δι τοῦς το Μίθρα με επρίος. De Abst. lib. iv. § εδ. Edit; Cantabr. 1655, Svo.

<sup>†</sup> So Tully. Ex quibus humanæ vitæ erroribus & ærumnis fit, ut interdum veteres illi five vates, five in facris Initisque tradendis divinæ mentis interpretes, qui nos ob aliqua scelera suscepta in vità superiore, pœnarum luendarum caussa, natos esse dixerunt, aliquid vidisse videantur. Fragm. ex lib. de Philosophia.

<sup>2</sup> Plato in Phædone, p. 69. C. p. 81. A. t. I. Edit. Henr. Stephani.—Arislides Eleusinia, t. I. p. 454. Edit. Canteri, 8vo. & apud Stobæum, Serm. 119, &c. Schol. Arist. in Ranis. Diog. Laert. in vita Diog. Cynici.

<sup>§</sup> Συρτές των τελιτών ίση, είς τέλος άναβαγεϊν τάς ψυχάς διαίνο άφ' δ την αχώτην Ιποιήσαιθο κάθοδος, ός ἀτ' άρχης. In Phadone.

They contrived that every thing should tend to shew the necessity of virtue; as appears from Epictetus. "Thus the Mysleries become " uleful; thus we seize the true spirit of them; when we begin to 46 apprehend that every thing therein was instituted by the Ancients, " for instruction and amendment of life "." Porphyry gives us some of those moral precepts, which were inforced in the Mysteries, as to honour their parents, to offer up fruits to the Gods, and to forbear cruelty towards animals +. For the accomplishment of this purpose, it was required in the Aspirant to the Mysteries, that he should be of a clear and unblemished Character, and free even from the suspicion of any notorious crime ‡. To come at the truth of his Character, he was severely interrogated by the Priest or Hierophant, impressing on him the same sense of obligation to conceal nothing, as is now done at the roman Confessional &. Hence it was, that when Nero, after the murder of his mother, took a journey into Greece, and had a mind to be prefent at the celebration of the Eleusinian Mysteries, the conscience of his parricide deterred him from attempting it ||. On the fame account, the good emperor

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<sup>†</sup> Γονίζ τιμών, Θιὸς ααρτοῖς άγάλλαιν, ζῶα μὸ σίνισθαι. De Abst. lib. iv. § 22. Edit. Cant. 1655, 8vo.

<sup>‡</sup> Oίτοι γὰς τώ τ' ἄλλα μαθαρός είναι τοῦς μύταις ἐν κοιρο ωραδοριόνστι, είοι τὰς χείζας τὰν ψυχὰν — είναι. Libanius Decl. xix. p. 495. D. Edit. Motelli, fol. 1606.

<sup>§</sup> As appears from the repartee which Plutarch records, in his Laconic apophthegms of Lysander, Edit. Francos. 1599. t. II. p. 229. D. when he went to be initiated into the Samothracean mysteries; Es di Samohána agrangea spains avrã à signic indicases simili à, ri discussivation il re di disconsiste di samohána avra di recordina di recordina

ll Peregrinatione quidem Græciæ, Eleufinlis factis, quorum initiatione impif & kelerati voce præconis submoverentur, interesse non ausus est. Sueton. Vita Neron. cap. 34. § 12. Edit. Pitisci.

M. Antoninus, when he would purge himself to the world of the death of Avidius Cassius, chose to be initiated into the Eleufinian Multeries \*; it being notorious, that none were admitted into them, who laboured under the just suspicion of any heinous immorality. And Philostratus tells us, that Apollonius was desirous of being initiated in these Mysteries; but that the Hierophant refused to admit him, because he esteemed the Aspirant to be no better than a Magician: for the Eleusinian stood open to none who did not approach the Gods with a pure and holy worship +. This was, originally, an indispensable condition of initiation, observed in common, by all the Mysteries; and instituted by Bacchus, or Osiris himself, the first inventer of them; who, as Diodorus tells us, initiated none but pious and virtuous men 1. During the celebration of the Mysteries, they were enjoined the greatest fanctity, and highest elevation of mind. "When you sacrifice or pray (says " Epictetus in Arrian) go with a prepared purity of mind, and with 44 dispositions so previously ordered, as are required of you when " you approach the ancient rites and Mysteries §. And Proclus tells us that the Mysteries and the Initiations drew the souls of men from a material, sensual, and merely human life, and joined them in communion with the Gods ||. Nor was a less degree of purity required of the Initiated for their future conduct \*\*. They were

<sup>\*</sup> Jul. Capit. Vita Ant. Phil. and Dion Cass.

<sup>†</sup> Ο Ν λεφθάνης ώς εδώλη αναχέχειν τὰ λεξά, μὰ γάς αν απολε μυθέσαι γόνηα μὰ δὶ τὰν Ἐλιυστια ἀνοξαι ἀνδρώτη μὰ καθαρῷ τὰ Δαιμόνια. De Vita Apollonii Tyanensis, 1. iv. c. 18. Edit. Olearii, fol.

<sup>📫 —</sup> મહીલતો(દ્વા તો મુ તે જાણો રહેદ નામીહેદ, મુ મહીલતોગલા રહેર માગભાંગ રહોદ શોળખિંજ રહે હોઈફઇપ્રહા મુટે ત્રેંપલાક લિંક હેળમોળ. Lib. iii. p. 138. St. Ed.

<sup>§</sup> Kai milà ઉપરાંત છે, તો mer' લોટ્રાંગ, તો જાગમાં ભારત તો જાગનેવામાં માં જાર્મમાં, કરા દિશા જાગના તેમાં જો તેમ ત્રાંકાના તો દેવારા જાત્રે જાત્રે કાર્યો. Arrian. Differt. lib. iii. cap. 21.

Πά σε ρεετέρει κỳ τὰς τελελὰς ἀνάγων μὰν ἀπὸ τῆς ἐνώλυ κỳ θνολοκὸῦς ζωῆς τὰς ψεχὰς, κỳ συνάπλειν
 τοῦς θοῦς. In Remp. Plat. lib. i.

<sup>\*\*</sup> Kai rös purspiss ağusti; idifun il rü; maş ipis alifens madibus. Quidam apud Sopatrum, in Div. Quest.

obliged by folemn engagements to commence a new life of strictest piety and virtue; into which they were entered by a severe course of penance, proper to purge the mind of its natural desilements. Gregory Nazianzen tells us, that "no one could be initiated into the "Mysieries of Mithras, till he had undergone all forts of mor- tifying trials, and had approved himself holy and impassible "." The consideration of all this made Tertullian say, that, in the Mysteries, "Truth herself took on every shape, to oppose and combat Truth +." And St. Austin, "That the devil hurried away deluded souls to their destruction, when he promised to purify them by those ceremonies, called INITIATIONS \cup."

The initiated, under this discipline, and with these promises, were esteemed the only happy amongst men. Aristophanes, who speaks the sense of the people, makes them exult and triumph after this manner: "On us only does the sun dispense his blessings; "we only receive pleasure from his beams: we, who are initiated, and perform towards citizens and strangers all acts of piety and justice §." And Sophocles, to the same purpose, "Life, only is to be had there: all other places are full of misery and evil ."
"Happy (says Euripides) is the man who hath been initiated into the greater Mysteries, and leads a life of piety and religion \*\*."

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    Μόσοις γκες άμεις τέναν
    Καὶ φίργο ελαρόν έτου,
    "Οσοι μεμυάμεθ', οὐ-
σεδὰ τε δάγορευ
    Τεόπου, σεες τε ξάνες
    Καὶ τὰς εδιάστας.
    Chorus in Ranis, act. i. in fine.
    Τοῖς δὲ μόνους ἐκεῖ
    Ζᾶν ἐτρις τοῖς δὲ ἄλλοισε στα, τ' ἐπεῖ κακά.
    'Ω μάκαρ ὅτες εἰδαίμων τελείδες θεῦν
    Εἰδὸς, βεδὰν ἀγοςτέτε.
    Βαcch.
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થેકોડ્રે કે કેઇલ્લાનીના નાંતાઉનીના નહેડ નહે માટે મિર્ગણ નાંતાલેડ્ડ, કો મૃત્રે કેલ્લે જ્લાવડે નહે માત્રે કરાય જ્લાંગિકા, જે કેર્ડિયા કેલ્લેક્ટ હેમ્લાનીના કેર્ડિયા કેલ્લેક્ટ હેમ્લાનીના કેર્ડિયા કેલ્લેક્ટ હેમ્લાનીના કેર્ડિયા ક

<sup>+</sup> Omnia adversus veritatem, de ipsa veritate constructa sunt. Apol. cap. 47.

T Diabolum—animas deceptas illusasque præcipitasse—quum polliceretur purgationem animæ per eas, quas TEAETAE appellant. De Trinitate, lib. iv. c. 10.

And the longer any one had been initiated, the more honourable was he deemed \*. It was even scandalous not to be initiated: and however virtuous the person otherwise appeared, he became suspicious to the people: As was the case of Socrates, and, in aftertimes, of Demonax +. No wonder, then, if the superior advantages of the Initiated, both here and hereafter, should make the Mysteries universally aspired to. And, indeed, they soon grew as comprehensive in the numbers they embraced, as in the regions and countries to which they extended: men, women, and children ran to be initiated. Thus Apuleius ‡ describes the state of the Mysteries even in his time: "Instrumt turbæ, sacris divinis initiatæ, "viri sæminæque, omnis ætatis & omnis dignitatis." The Pagans, we see, seemed to think initiation as necessary, as the Christians did baptism. And the custom of initiating children appears from a passage of Terence §, to have been general.

- " Ferietur alio munere, ubi hera pepererit;
- " Porro autem alio, ubi erit puero natalis dies,
- " Ubi INITIABUNT."

Nay they had even the same superstition in the administration of it, which some Christians had of Baptism, to defer it till the approach of death; so the honest farmer Trygæus, in the Pax of Aristophanes:

Δεί γαρ μυηθηναί με πρίν τεθνηκέναι.

The occasion of this solicitude is told us by the scholiast on the Ranæ of the same poet. "The Athenians believed, that he who "was initiated, and instructed in the Mysteries, would obtain

<sup>\*</sup> Kal δ μὸν ἀζετελός μύτης ἀτιμότερο το σάλαι μύτα. Aristidis in Orat. συρί σαραφθέγμαθο.

<sup>+</sup> Lucian. Vit. Dem. t. II. p. 374, et seq. Edit. Reitzii, 4°, Amstel. 1743.

<sup>1</sup> Met. lib. xi. pag. 959. Edit. Lugd. 1587, 8vo.

<sup>§</sup> Phorm. act. i. fc. i. And Donatus, ou the place, tells us, the same custom prevailed in the Samothracian mysteries: "Terentius Apollodorum sequitur, apud quem "legitur, in insula Samothracum à certo tempore pueros initiari, more Atheniensum."

"celestial honour after death: and THEREFORE all ran to be ini"tiated"." Their fondness for it became so great, that at such times as
the public Treasury was low, the Magistrates could have recourse to
the Mysteries, as a fund to supply the exigencies of the State.

"Aristogiton (says the commentator on Hermogenes) in a great

"fearcity of public money, procured a law, that in Athens every
"one should pay a certain sum for his initiation +."

Every thing in these rites was mysteriously conducted, and under the most solemn obligations to secrecy ‡. Which how it could agree to our representation of the Mysteries, as an institution for the use of the people, we shall now endeavour to explain.

They were hidden and kept fecret for two reasons:

I. Nothing excites our cu iosity like that which retires from our observation, and seems to forbid our search. Of this opinion we find the learned Synesius, where he says, "The people will de"spise what is easy and intelligible, and therefore they must always be provided with something wonderful and mysterious in Religion, to hit their taste, and stimulate their curiosity \s\." And again, 
The ignorance of the mysteries preserves their veneration: for which reason they are entrusted only to the cover of night ||."

<sup>&</sup>quot; ΛόγΦ γας ίκεται વાલું 'Αθωκίος, એς 8 τά μυγύρια διδαχθείς, μεδά τὰν ειθένδι τελευθήν θείας ἀξιώτο τιμάς: તેએ κὸ ακάτες αφός τὰν μύκουν δοπιυδεν.

<sup>† &#</sup>x27;Αριτογείτων δι σπάτει χρημάτων, γράφει νόμου, σαρ' 'Αθηναίως μισθό μιεδοθαι. Syrianus.

<sup>1</sup> Cum ignotis hominibus Orpheus sacrorum ceremonias aperiret, nihil aliud ab his quos initiabat in primo vestibulo nisi jurisjurandi necessitatem, & cum terribili quadam auctoritate religionis, exegit, ne profanis auribus inventa ac composita religionis secreta proderentur. Fermicus in limine lib. vii. Astronom.—Nota sunt hac Graca superstitionis Hierophantis, quibus inviolabili lege interdictum erat, ne hac atque hujusmodi Mysteria apud eos, qui his sacris minimè initiati essent, evulgarent.—Nicetas in Gregorii Nazianzeni Orat. vii tà apia sura. This obligation of the initiated to secrecy was the reason that the Egyptian bieroglyphic for them, was a grass-hopper, which was supposed to have no mouth. See Horapollo Hieroglyph. lib. ii. cap. 55. Edit. Pauw, 1727, 4to.

<sup>§</sup> To & έφεσο καθαγολάνδαι ο δύμφου διδται γάς τεςαθείας. Το the same purpose, Nicephorus Gregoras, Hist. lib. v. p. 72. Edit. Balil. sol. 1562. Τὰ γάς τεϋς ακάσι αρέχειςα κέςοι τι ώχη, κὸ άχεις κα σείσιι ὡς τὰ ακολλὰ στιριείχυδαι.

 <sup>&</sup>quot;Aγωσία σομιότας ἐςὶ τελείῶι" κỳ τὸξ τῶτο Φισεύθαι τὰ μυτάρια. Libro de Providentia.
 Vol. I.
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"The veil or mist (says Clemens Alex.) through which things are only permitted to be seen, renders the truths contained under it more venerable and majestic "." On these principles the Mysteries were framed. They were kept secret, to excite curiosity: They were celebrated in the night, to impress veneration and religious horror +: And they were performed with variety of shews and representations (of which more hereaster) to six and perpetuate these impressions \documentum{1}{2}. Hitherto, then, the Mysteries are to be considered as invented, not to deter, but to invite the curiosity of the people. But,

II. They were kept secret from a necessity of teaching the Initiated some things, improper to be communicated to ALL. The learned Varro in a fragment of his book Of Religions, preserved by St. Augustin, tells us, that "There were many truths, which it "was inconvenient for the State to be generally known; and many things, which, though false, it was expedient the People should believe; and that therefore the Greeks shut up their MYSTERIES in the silence of their sacred inclosures s."

Now to reconcile this feeming contradiction, in supposing the Mysteries to be instituted to invite the People into them, and, at the same time, to keep them from the People's knowledge, we are to observe, that in the Eleusinian rites there were two celebrations of the Mysteries, the GREATER and the LESS ||. The end of the less

<sup>\*</sup> ἄλλως το εξ ακάθ' όσα διά τίνες ακεακαλύμματος ύποφαίνεται, μείζοιά το εξ σομιστίχαι δύκινου τὰν άλίθωσο. Strom. L. v. pag. 419. lin. 3. Edit. Sylburgh.

<sup>†</sup> Euripides, in the Bacchantes, act ii. makes Bacchus say, that the orgies were celebrated in the night, because darkness has something solemn and august in it, and proper to fill the mind with facred horror.

<sup>‡</sup> Διὸ κỳ τὰ μυτάφια is ΑΛΛΗΓΟΡΙΑΙΣ λίγεθαι, σερὸς ἄκπλαξει κỳ φρίατε, όσπες is ΣΚΟΤΩι, κỳ NYKTI' διαι δὶ κỳ à ἀλλαγορία τῷ σαότφ κỳ τặ svuli. Demet. Phalereus de Elocutione, § 110.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;\$ Multa esse vera, quæ vulgo seire non sit utile; multaque, quæ, tametsi salsa sint, aliter existimare populum expediat. Et ideo Græcos Teletas ac Mysteria taciturnitate parietibusque clausisse. Civ. Dei, lib. iv. cap. 31.

<sup>||</sup> Thran τὰ μὸι μιγάλα τῆς Δήμηθρο τὰ δι μικρά Πιεσιρώνης τῆς αὐτῆς θυγαθρός. Interp. Græc. ad Plut. Aristophanis.

must be referred to what we said of the Institutor's intention to invite the people into them; and of the greater, to his intention of keeping some truths from the people's knowledge. Nor is this said without sufficient warrant: Antiquity is very express for this distinction. We are told that the lesser Mysteries were only a kind of preparatory purification for the Greater\*, and might be easily communicated to all †. That sour years ‡ was the usual time of probation for those greater Mysteries; in which (as Clemens Alexandrinus expressy informs us) the SECRETS were deposited §.

However, as it is very certain, that both the greater and leffer Mysteries were instituted for the benefit of the State, it follows, that the DOCTRINES taught in both, were equally for the service of Society; only with this difference; some without inconvenience might be taught promiscuously, others could not.

On the whole, the sccret in the lesser Mysteries was principally contained in some hidden rites and shews to be kept from the open view of the people, only to invite their curiosity: And the secret in the greater, some hidden dostrines to be kept from the people's knowledge, for the very contrary purpose. For the Shews common both to the greater and lesser mysteries, were only designed to engage the attention, and raise their devotion.

But it may be worth while to enquire more particularly into the HIDDEN DOCTRINES of the greater Mysteries: for so religiously was the secret kept, that the thing seems still to lie involved in darkness. We shall, therefore, proceed cautiously; and try, from the obscure hints dropped up and down in Antiquity,

" Pandere res alta terra & caligine mersas."

<sup>\*</sup> Ετι τὰ μικρά δισπιρ ατροκάθαζους, κ၌ αξοάγουσος τῶν μυγάλων. Schol. ad Plut. secund. Aristoph.

<sup>†</sup> Emissione prince in prince . Schol. Aristoph.

<sup>† —</sup>Cùm epoptas ante quinquennium instituunt, ut opinionem suspendio cognitionis adificent. Tertul. adv. Valentinianos, in initio.

<sup>§</sup> Μιὰ ταῦτα δό έτι τὰ μυτέ μυτέρια, διλασιαλίας τοιλ ὑπίθεσεν ἔχοθα, κỳ σερταμαστευῖς τὸν μελλώθων τὰ δὶ μογάλα σερὶ τὸν συμπάθω κὰ μαθάνειν ἔτι ἐπολείπεθαι, ἐποπλεύειο δὶ, κỳ σερευείν τόν το φύσεν, κỳ τὰ σχάβαθα. Strom. v. pag. 424. C. Edit. Sylburgii.

First, as to the general nature of these bidden dostrines, it appears, they must needs be such which, if promiscuously taught, would bring prejudice to the State; Why else were they secreted? and, at the same time, benefit, if communicated with caution and prudence; Why else were they taught at all?

From their general nature, we come by degrees to their particular. And first,

- I. To the certain knowledge of what they were not: which is one step to the knowledge of what they were.
- 1. They were not the common doctrines of a Providence and future state; for ancient testimony is express, that these doctrines were taught promiscuously to all the initiated; and were of the very essence of these Rites—These doctrines were not capable of being hid and secreted, because they were of universal credit amongst the civilized part of mankind. There was no need to hide them; because the common knowledge of them was so far from being detrimental to Society, that, as we have shewn, Society could not even subsist without their being generally known and believed.
- 2. These secret doctrines could not be the metaphysical speculations of the Philosophers concerning the Deity, and the human soul.

  1. Because this would be making the bidden dostrines of the schools of Philosophy, and of the mysteries of Religion, one and the same; which they could not be, because their ends were different: the end of pagan Philosophy being only Truth; the end of pagan Religion, only Utility. These indeed were their professed ends. But Both being ignorant of this imporant verity, That Truth and general Utility do coincide\*, they Both, in many cases, missed shamefully of their end. The Philosopher, while he neglected utility, falling into the most absurd and fatal errors concerning the nature of God and of the Soul; And the Lawgiver, while so little solicitous of

<sup>\*</sup> See B. III. Sect. 2.

<sup>†</sup> See B. III. Sect. 4.

ever, as we shall now see, he invented and successfully employed these Mysteries to remedy the disorders arising from it.—2. Because revealing such metaphysical speculations to the members of civil Society, with what caution soever, would be injurious to the State, and productive of no good to Religion; as will be seen when we come, in the third book, to examine what those metaphysical speculations were.—3. Because such speculations (as we shall then see) would overthrow every thing taught to ALL, in the Mysteries, concerning a Providence, and a suture state: And yet we are told by the Ancients, that the doctrines of a Providence, and suture state, were the foundation of the more secret ones, after which we are now enquiring.

I have been the more particular in refuting this notion, that the fecret doctrines of the Schools, and of the Mysteries might be the same; because I find it to be an error, into which some, even of the most knowing of the Ancients, were apt to fall. What misled them, was, 1. That the Schools and Mysteries both pretended to reflore the foul to its original purity and perfection. We have seen how much the Mysteries pretended to it. As to the Philosophers, Porphyry, speaking of Pythagoras, tells us, that " he professed philo-" fophy, whose end is to free and vindicate the foul from those " chains and confinements, to which its abode with us liath made "it subject \*." 2. That the Schools and Mysteries had each their hidden doctrines, which went under the common name of ATIOP-PHTA: and that, which had a common name, was understood to have a common nature. 3. And chiefly, that the Philosopher and Lawgiver, being frequently in one and the same person, and, confequently, the Institutions of the Mysleries and the Schools established by the same hand, it appeared reasonable to think, that the ἀπόριηα, in both, were the same; they not distinguishing the

Φιλοσοφίαν δ' ἰξιλοσόφησει, τι δ σαυτός, βύσασθαι κὰ διλευδεμώσαι τών τοιώταν εξεμών τε κή συνδέσμον τὸ καλακεχαρισμείου έμιδ εδίν. De Vita Pythag. Edit. Cantabr. 1655, 800. pag. 201.

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twofold character of the ancient Sage, which shall be explained hereafter \*.

II. Having, from the discovery of the general end and purpose of these Secrets, seen what they could not be, we shall now be enabled to find what, in fact, they were.

To begin with a passage of Clemens Alexandrinus.—" After these " (namely, lustrations) are the Lesser Mysteries, in which is laid "the Foundation of the bidden doctrines, and preparations for "what is to come afterwards +." From a knowledge of the foundation, we may be able to form an idea of the superstructure. This foundation (as hath been shewn) was the belief of a Providence, and future state; and, its consequence on practice, inducement to a virtuous life. But there was one insuperable obstacle to a life of purity and holiness, the vicious examples of their Gods. Ego HOMUNCIO HOC NON FACEREM ‡? was the absolving Formula, whenever any one was resolved to give a loose to his appetit s §. But the mischief went still farther; They not only thought themselves excused by the example, but even drawn, by a divine im-

<sup>\*</sup> See B. III. Sect. 2.

<sup>†</sup> Μίλ ταῦτα δί έτι τὰ μικρὰ μυ; έρια, διδασκαλίας τινὰ ἐπίθιστι ἔχοίλα, κὰ συραπαρασκιτῆς τῶν μιλλόίλου. Strom. v. pag. 424. 'Αγών γὰρ κὰ στράγων, κὰ μυτάρια τὰ σερὰ μυτηρίων. Strom. i. pag. 203. lin. 7. Edit. Sylburgh.

<sup>‡</sup> Terence, Eun. act. iii. sc. vi—Euripides puts this argument into the mouth of several of his speakers, up and down his tragedies. Helen, in the sourch act of the Trajan Dames, says, "How could I resist a Goddess, whom Jupiter himself obeys?" Ion, in his play of that name, in the latter end of the first act, speaks to the same purpose: and in the fifth act of Hercules Furens, Theseus comforts his friend by the examples of the crimes of the Gods. See likewise his Hippolytus, act ii. sc. ii. The learned and ingenious Mr. Seward, in his tract of the Conformity between Popery and Paganiam, has taken notice of a difficult passage in this tragedy, which he has very ably explained, on the system here delivered of the detection of Polytheism in the sacred Mysteries.

<sup>§ —</sup> ὁ δ πολύς η ἀφιλοσόφειο ὅχλο ἐπὶ τὰ χτίςυ λαμδάτευ φιλεῖ τὰς περὶ αὐτῶν λίγας, η πάσχει θάτεςου, ἡ καθαφεονῶν τῶν θεῶν, ὡς ἐν πολλῆ κακεθαιμοι καιλιεθαμένου ἡ τῶν αἰσχίρων τε η παγαιομωθάτου ἀδιὸς ἀπίχεται, θεοῖς ὑςῶν αὐτὰ περοπείμενα. Dion. Halicar, apud Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. ii. cap. 8.

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pulse of their Gods. When the young man in the Aulularia of Plautus apologises to Euclio for having debauched his Daughter, he says,

"Deus mihi IMPULSOR fuit, Is me ad illam ILLEXIT "."

And by a passage in his Amphitruo, where he makes Mercury joke upon the office of a Parasite in the description he gives of his own obsequiousness to his father Jupiter, we see it was grown up into an avowed Principle:

- "Amanti [patri] fupparafitor, hortor, asto, admoneo, gaudeo.
- " Siquid patri volup' est, voluptas ea mihi multo maxima est.
- "Amat, sapit: recte facit, animo quando obsequitur suo †."

He then addresses himself to the audience, and tells them gravely, that men, in like manner, after the example of Jupiter, should indulge their passions, where they can do it decently.——

"Quod omnes homines facere oportet, dum id modo fiat bono."

And the licentious rites, in the OPEN worship of their Gods, gave still greater encouragement to these conclusions. Plato, in his book Of Laws, forbids drinking to excess; unless, says he, during the seasts of Bacchus, and in honour of that God ‡. And Aristotle, in his Polities, having blamed all lewed and obscene images and pictures, excepts those of the Gods, which Religion had sanctified. When St. Austin § had quoted the Ego homuncio hoc non facerom, to shew his adversaries what mischief these stories did to the morals of the people; he makes the defenders of Paganism reply, that it was true; but then (say they) these things were only taught in the Fables of the poets, which, an attention to the MYSTERIES

<sup>\*</sup> A&. 4. Sc. 10.

<sup>+</sup> Act. iii. Sc. iv.

<sup>1</sup> Lib. vi.

<sup>§</sup> Civ. Dei, L. II. Cap. 7. in fine, et 8. in initio.

would rectify: "At enim non traduntur ista sacris deorum, sed "Fabulis poetarum "."

For the Mysteries professed to exact nothing difficult, of the initiated +, which they would not assist him to perform. It was neceffary, then, to remedy this evil; which they did, by striking at the root of it. So that, such of the Initiated as were judged capable, were made acquainted with the whole delusion. The MYSTAGOGUE taught them, that -Jupiter, Mercury, Bacchus, Venus, Mars, and the whole rabble of licentious Deities, were only DEAD MORTALS; subject, in life, to the same passions and infirmities with themselves; but having been, on other accounts, Benefactors to mankind, grateful Posterity had deified them; and, with their virtues, had indifcreetly canonized their vices. The fabulous Gods being thus routed, the supreme cause of all things naturally took their place. HIM they were taught to consider as the Creator of the Universe, who pervaded all things by his virtue, and governed all by his power. But here it must be observed, that the discovery of this supreme Cause they made to be consistent with the notion of local tutelary Deities, Beings superior to men, and inferior to God, and by him fet over the several parts of his creation. This was an opinion universally holden by learned Antiquity, and never brought into question by any Theist. What the cinoppyla overthrew in their reformed theology, was the vulgar polytheism, the worship of dead men. From this time, the initiated had the title of EHOHTHE, by which was meant one that fees things as they are, and without difguise; whereas, before, he was called MYETHE, which has a contrary fignification.

<sup>•</sup> This the Father could not deny; but observes, however, that in the THEN corrupt fate of the Mysteries the remedy was become part of the disease: "Noto dicere ILLA "MYSTICA quam ista theatrica esse turpiora."

<sup>† &#</sup>x27;Αλλ' δουμαι διά τὰν τιλιτὰν ωρός αιδουν άρθλα ίτοιμόταθο. Soput. in Div. Quæft. Καδάαις ἄλλη μυτηρίη ωροθιλισθείς τῆ σιαπῆ, τὰν άλλον άμαρημάτων λοιπέν τὸν ἡμαυθό βέιν ἐνάθαιρον, ηὸ, ωρὸς τὸν θείαν τὰν θεῶν τελεθὰν ἐπευγέμενου, ἐκκλίνειν τῶν άμαρημάτων Ισπόδαζου. Soput. ibidem.

But, besides the prevention of vice, their bringing the Initiated acquainted with the national Gods had another important use, which was to excite them to HEROIC VIRTUE, by shewing them what honours the benefactors of nations had acquired, by the free exercise of it. And this (as will be shewn hereaster) was the chief reason why Princes, Statesmen, and Leaders of colonies and armies, all aspired to be partakers of the GREATER MYSTERIES.

Thus we see, how what was taught and required in the lesser Mysteries, became the soundation of instruction in the GREATER: the obligation to a good life there, made it necessary to remove the errors of vulgar polytheism here; and the doctrine of a Providence taught previously in those, facilitated the reception of the sole cause of all things, when finally revealed in these.

Such were the TRUTHS which Varro, as quoted above, tells us it was inexpedient for the People to know: for indeed he supposed, the error of vulgar Polytheism to be so inveterate, that it was not to be expelled without throwing Society into convulsions. But Plato spoke out: he owned it to be "difficult to find the Father and "Creator of the universe: and, when found, impossible to disco- "ver him to all the world "."

Besides, there was another reason why the Institutors of the Mysteries, who were Lawgivers, should be for secreting this truth. They themselves had the chief hand in the rise of vulgar Polytheism+. They contrived it for the sake of the State; and to keep the people in awe, under a greater veneration for their laws. This Polytheism, the poets had depraved, by inventing or recording vicious stories of the Gods and Heroes, which the Lawgivers were willing should be shifted ‡. And they were only such stories, that, in their opinion, (as may be seen in Plato) made Polytheism hurtful to the State.

Scævola,

<sup>&</sup>quot; Tòr μίτ తే ఆటాగేషా ప్రా అడిగ్యం గరేటి గరే అడిగిక్క బీట్లు గా క్విట్కా ప్రా బిగ్గిలోడు బీక ఆమీడ్య డేస్టుడేటు ఎక్కుబు. In Timzo.

<sup>+</sup> See the second Section of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> Plato has a remarkable passage to this purpose. Speaking, in the beginning of his swelfth Book Of Laws, concerning thest, and fraud, and rapine, he takes notice of the Vol. I.

B b popular

Scævola, that most learned Pontisex, as St. Austin calls him, gives this very account of the matter, where he says, There were three Systems concerning the Gods, the Poetic, the Philosophic, and the Civil: the first, he says, was nugatory, and therefore hurtful to the virtue of the State: the second incongruous to public establishments, by creating disorder and consusion in the speculative opinions of the People; such as the teaching them, promiscuously, that the Popular Gods were dead men deitied. The directors of the third System therefore prevented the mischiefs of the first by such a partial communication of the second System, as was necessary for that purpose\*.

That this account of the SECRET, in the greater Mysleries, is no precarious hypothesis, standing on mere conjecture, I shall now endeavour to shew,

First, from the clear evidence of Antiquity, which expresly informs us of these two particulars; That the EKRORS OF POLYTHEISM were detected, and the DOCTRINE OF THE UNITY was taught and explained in the Mysteries. But here it is to be observed, that when the Ancients speak of Mysteries indefinitely, they generally mean the greater.

popular stories told of Mercury, as if he delighted in such things, and patronized those who did; the philosopher says they are not true; and cautions men from being led away by such pretended examples. However, to make all sure, he takes up the method of the mysteries, and adds, that if, indeed, Mercury did, or encouraged such things, he was neither a God, nor of celestial original.——λουθ μίν χριμάτον, ἀναλεθείον, άςπαγλ δί, ἀναίσχυνδον τῶν Διὸς ἄ υἰεῶν ἀδείς ὅτα δέλοις, ὅτα βίφ χρίζου ἐπλιττάθουκε τάτοιν ἐδέτειχον μυθλίς ὄτο ἀναπειδίσθος τὰ ποιαῦτα, ἱξαπαδόμει ἀναπειδίσθος τὰ πλίπθον ἡ βιαζόμε, οἰεοθω μυθὸν αἰσχεὸν ποιεῖν, ἀλλ' ἄπες αὐτοὶ θεοὶ δξῶσων ὅτι γὰς ἀλαθές, ὅτ΄ εἰκὸς ἀλλ' ὅτις δερῖ τοιῦτον παςανόμως, ὅτις Φαῖς ὅτις παῖς ἐτί ποὶι θεῶν.

\*Relatum est in literis, doctifimum Pontiscem Scavolam disputasse tria genera tradita Deorum; unum a poetis, alterum a philosophis, tertium a principibus civitatis. Primum genus nugatorium dicit esse—Secundum non congruere civitatibus, quod habeant aliqua—quæ obsint populis nosse—Quæ sunt autem illa quæ prolata in multitudinem nocent? "Hæe, inquit; non esse deos Herculem, Æsculapium, Castorem, "Pollucem: proditur enim a doctis, quod homines suerint, & humana conditione de's fecerint,"—Augustin. De Civit. Dei, lib. iv. cap. 27. in initio.

his

It hath been shewn, that the Grecian and Asiatic Mysteries came originally from Egypt. Now of the EGYPTIAN, St. Austin giveth us this remarkable account.—" Of the same nature, too, are those 44 things which Alexander of Macedon wrote to his mother, as revealed unto him by one LEO\*, chief Hierophant of the Egyptian " Mysteries: whereby it appeared, that not only such as Picus, and 4 Faunus, and Æneas, and Romulus, nay Hercules, and Æscu-" lapius, and Bacchus the son of Semele, and Castor, and Pollux, 44 and all others of the same rank, had been advanced, from the 44 condition of mortal Men, into Gods; but that even those Deities of the higher order, the Dii majorum gentium, those whom Cicero, "without naming, feems to hint at, in his Tusculans, such as 44 Jupiter, Juno, Saturn, Neptune, Vulcan, Vesta, and many others (whom Varro endeavours to allegorize into the elements " or parts of the world) were, in truth, only deceased mortals. "But the Priest being under great fears and apprehensions, while "he was telling this, as conscious that he was betraying the " SECRET OF THE MYSTERIES, begged of Alexander, when he 46 found that he intended to communicate it to his mother +, that "he

B b 2

<sup>\*</sup> It is not unlikely but this might be a name of office. Porphyry, in his fourth book Of Abstinence, § 16. Edit. Cantabr. 1655, 8vo, informs us, that the priests of the Mysteries of Mithras were called Lions; the priestesses Lionesses; and the inserior ministers. Rovens. Tà; pàs airig òppier piras, Aislas naltir ràs di yonaïta; Ataires. rois di intervilue, Kipane: for there was a great conformity, in the practices and ceremonies of the several Mysteries, throughout the whole pagan world. And this conjecture is supported by a passage in Eunapius, which seems to say, that it was unlawful to reveal the name of the Hierophant. --- To & 'lifoquily, nat' inition to action ore; do totoles & por Biper higher higher in Maxime, p. 74. Edit. Comelini, 8vo, 1616.—It looks as if the corruptions and debaucheries of some of the Mysteries, in later times, had made this further provision for Secrecy.

<sup>+</sup> I suppose this communication to his Mother, might be with a purpose to let her understand, that he was no longer the dupe of her fine story of Jupiter's invasion, and the intrigue of his divine original. For EratoRhenes, according to Plutarch, Edit. Francof. fol. 1599. T. I. p. 665, E. fays, that Olympias, when she brought Alexander on

"he would enjoin her to burn the letter, as soon as she had read it \*."

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To understand the concluding part, we are to know, that Cyprian (who has also preserved this curious anecdote) tells us, it was the dread of Alexander's power which extorted the secret from the hierophant +.

But Tully brings the matter home to the ELEUSINIAN Mysteries themselves. "What (says he) is not almost all Heaven, not to "carry on this detail any further, silled with the Human race?" But if I should search and examine Antiquity, and from those things which the Grecian writers have delivered, go to the bottom of this affair, it would be found, that even those very Gods

his way to the army, in his first military expedition, acquainted him, in private, with this secret of his birth: and exhorted him to behave himself as became the son of Jupiter Hammon. This, I suppose, Alexander might boast of to the Priest, and so the murder came out.

- \* In eo genere sunt etiam illa—quæ Alexander Macedo scribit ad matrem, sibi a magno antistite sacrorum Ægyptiorum quodam LEONE patesacta: ubi non Picus & Faunus, & Æneas & Romulus, vel etiam Hercules & Æsculapius, & Liber Semele natus, & Tyndaridæ fratres, & si quos alios ex mortalibus pro diis habent; sed ipsi etiam majorum gentium dii, quos Cicero in Tusculanis, tacitis nominibus, videtur attingere, Jupiter, Juno, Saturnus, Neptunus, Vulcanus, Vesta, & alii plurimi, quos Varro conaturad mundi partes sive elementa transferre, homines suisse produntur. Timens enim & ille quasi revelata mysteria, petens admonet Alexandrum, ut cum ea matri conscripta insinuaverit, slammis jubeat concremari. De Civit. Dei, lib. viii. cap. 5.
- † —metu suz potestatis proditum sibi de diis hominibus a sacerdote secretum. De Idol. Ven. eirea initium. But this is a mistake, at least it is expressed inaccurately. What was extorted by the dread of Alexander's power, was not the secret (which the initiated had a right to) but the Priest's consent that he should communicate the secret to another, which was contrary to the laws of the Myseries. Plutarch, in his life of Alexander, Edit. Francos. fol. 1599, p. 680. E. appears to refer to this very Epistle of Alexander to his Mother, where he says,—'Λλίξωνδρις ἐν ἐπισλῆ ωρὸς τὰν ματίρα, ψανίν γεγούναι τινὰς ἀνδῶ μαιδιίας ἀποβέτας, αξ ἐπαικδοὸν φράσει ωρὸς μόνην ἐκιόνον. " Alexander in the Epistle says that there were certain Oracular Mysteries imparted to him, which on his return he would communicate to her under the same seal of secrecy." For at this time the Mysteries foretold the future, as well as revealed the past.

44 themselves

44 themselves who are deemed the Dii majorum gentium, had their " original here below; and ascended from hence into Heaven. 66 Enquire, to whom those Sepulchres belong, which are so com-66 monly shewn in Greece \*. REMEMBER, for you are initiated, "WHAT YOU HAVE BEEN TAUGHT IN THE MYSTERIES; YOU 44 WILL THEN AT LENGTH UNDERSTAND HOW FAR THIS MATTER "MAY BE CARRIED +." Indeed, he carries it further himself; for he tells us, in another place, that not only the Eleufinian Mysteries, but the Samothracian likewise, and the Lemnian, taught the error of polytheism, agreeably to this system; which supposes all the Mysleries derived from the same original, and instituted for the fame ends. "What think you (fays he) of these who affert, that 46 valiant, or famous, or powerful men have obtained divine ho-" nours after death; and that these are the very Gods, now become "the object of our worship, our prayers, and adoration? EUHEME-" Rus tells us, when these Gods died, and where they lie buried. " I forbear to speak of the sacred and august rites of Eleusis-I pass 46 by Samothrace, and the Mysteries of Lemnos, whose bidden rites " are celebrated in darkness, and amidst the thick skades of groves and " forests ‡."

Lemni nocturno aditu occulta coluntur

Silvestribus sæpibus densa. De Nat. Deor. lib. 1. cap. 42. Edit. Ox. 410. T. II. p. 432, 33. See note E, at the end of this Book.

<sup>\*</sup> Alluding to that of Jupiter in Crete.

<sup>+</sup> Quid? totum prope cœlum, ne plures persequar, nonne humana genere completum est? Si vero scrutari vetera, & ex his ea, quæ scriptores Gracia prodiderunt, eruere coner; ipfi illi, majorum gentium Dii qui habentur, hinc a nobis profecti in cœlum reperiuntur. Quare, quorum demonstrantur sepulchra in Gracia: REMINISCERE, QUO-NIAM ES INITIATUS QUE TRADANTUR MYSTERIIS; TUM DENIQUE QUAM HOC LATE PATEAT, INTELLIGES. Tusc. Disp. lib. i. cap. 12, 13. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. II. p. 243. See note D, at the end of this book.

<sup>1</sup> Quid, qui aut fortes, aut claros aut potentes viros tradunt, post mortem ad Dees vesisse, evique esse ipsos, quos nos colere, precari, venerarique soleamus-Ab Euhemero & mortes & fepulturae demonstrantur deorum—Omitto Eleufinam sanctam illam & augustam— Prætereo Samothraciam, eaque, quæ

Julius Fermicus speaks much to the same purpose, and even more directly, "Adhuc supersunt aliæ superstitiones, quarum secreta "pandenda sunt Liberi & Liberæ, quæ omnia sacris sensibus vestris "specialiter intimanda sunt, ut in istis profanis religionibus sciatis "MORTES ESSE HOMINUM CONSECRATAS. Liber itaque, Jovis suit silius, regis scil. Cretici, &c \*."

What hath been here said, will let us into the meaning of Plutarch's hint, in the following words of his tract Concerning the ceasing of oracles. "As to the Mysteries, in whose representations the true nature of demons is clearly and accurately held forth, a sacred silence, to use an expression of Herodotus, is to be observed +." All this well illustrates a passage in Lucian's Council of the Gods; when, after Momus had ridiculed the monstrous Deities of Egypt, Jupiter replies, "It is true these are abominable things, which you mention of the Egyptian Worship. But then, consider, Momus, that much of it is enigmatical; and so, consequently, a very unsit subject for the bustoonry of the Prosephane and Uninitiated." To which, the other answers with much spirit, "Yes, indeed, we have great occasion for the MYSTERIES, to know that Gods are Gods, and monsters, monsters ‡."

Thus far in detection of the vulgar Polytheisim.—With regard to the other part of the SECRET, the doctrine of the UNITY, Clemens Alexandrinus informs us, that the Egyptian Mystagogues taught it amongst their greater secrets. "The Egyptians (says he) did not use to reveal their Mysteries indiscriminately to all, nor expose their truths concerning their Gods to the Prophane, but to those only who were to succeed to the administration of the State: and

<sup>\*</sup> De errorre profan. relig. cap. vi. Edit. Oxon. 1662, 16mo, pag. 9.

<sup>†</sup> Πιρί του μυγικου το εξε τάς μεγέρας τη φάσεις κή λαφάσεις λαδείν έρυ της αυχί δαιμόνων άληθείας, ευγομά μοι αιίσθω, καθ' Βρόδολου. P. 742. lin. 3. Steph. edit.

<sup>‡</sup> Λίσχεὰ ἀς άληθῶς ταῦτα φὰς τὰ αιεί τῶν Λίρυνθων· ὅμως δ' ὧι, ϶ Μῶμι, τὰ αιλλὰ αὐτῶν αἰκίσμαλά ἰρο κỳ ἀ αάνυ χρὰ καθαγελάν ἀμύντον ὅτθα· ΜΩΜ. Πάνυ γῶν ΜΥΣΤΗΡΙΩΝ, ϶ Ζιῦ, διὰ ὑμῖν, ὡς εἰδίναι θιὰς μὲν τὰς θεὰς· κυνοκιφάλως δὶ τοὸς κυνοκιφάλως. Edit. Reitzii, Τ. III. p. 534.

## SECT. 4. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED. 191

"to fuch of the Priests as were most approved, by their education, learning, and quality "."

But, to come to the Grecian Mysteries. Chrysippus, as quoted by the author of the Etymol. magnum, speaks to this purpose. "And Chrysippus says, that the secret doctrines concerning divine "matters, are rightly called TEAETAI, for that these are the last "things the initiated should be informed of: The soul having "gained an able support; and, being possessed of her desires +, "can keep silent before the Uninitiated and Prophane ‡." To the same purpose, Clemens: "The doctrines delivered in the greater "Mysteries, are concerning the UNIVERSE. Here all instruction "ends. Things are seen as they are; and Nature, and the things "of Nature, are given to be comprehended §."

Strabo having faid ||, that Nature dictated to men the institution of the Myseries, as well as the other rites of Religion, gives this remarkable reason for his affertion, "that the secret celebration of the Myseries preserves the majesty due to the Divinity, and, at "the same time, imitates its nature, which hides itself from our senses." A plain intimation of what kind the secret was.

<sup>\*</sup> Αι-όπιω & τοῖς ἐπθυχῶσι τὰ παρὰ σφίσιν ἐνθιθεθο μυτέρια ἐδθ μὰν βαθύλοις τὰν τῶν θείων είδισεν ἐξέφερον, ἀλλ΄ ἡ μόνως γε τοῖς μέλλυσεν ἐπὶ τὰν βασιλείαν αρῶίκαι. Ἡ τῶν ἐιρίων τοῖς αρθεῖσεν εἶναι δουιμωϊατοις ἀπὸ τὰς τροφῶς, Ἡ τῆς παιδείας Ἡ τῶ γένας. Strom. lib. v. p. 566. edit. Lut. [p. 413. l. 16. Edit. Sylburg.]

<sup>+</sup> i. e. mistress of herself,

<sup>1</sup> Χεβουτα δι Φοοί, τὸς συρί τῶν θείων λόγως εἰκότως καλεῖσθαι τελείκε χρῦναι γὰρ τώτως τελευ-Ιαίως, κὰ ἰπὶ σῶσι διδάσκισθαι· τὸς ψοχῆς ἐχύσης ἔξμα, κὰ κικραθημένης, κὰ σερές τὰς ἄμυύτως σιωτῷν δεκαμένης· μέξα γὰρ εἶναι τὸ ἄθλον, ὑτὰς θεῶν ἀκύσαι τι ὁρθὰ, κὰ ἐγκραθεῖς γινίσθαι αὐτῶν. Ειγπολ. Αυθίοτ, in TEΛΕΤΗ.

<sup>§</sup> Τὰ δὶ μιγάλα σερί τῶν συμπάνθων ὁ μαυθάνει ἔτι ἐπολείπεθαι, ἐποπλείσει δὶ κ၌ σειριοιῖν τέν τε Φίσει κỳ τὰ σχάβματα. Strom. v. p. 424. C. Edit. Sylburgh.

<sup>||</sup> ή φύσις ϋτως ἐτωγιχεία. lib. x. p. 467. Edit. Parif. 1620, fol.

<sup>\*\*</sup> The ngirles & pursue, the ingire suprement to better, pupuping the prior aire in pursue, the colorest in the colorest in the colorest in the two preceding passages from Chrysippus and Clemens; and shews that by nature is not meant the cosmical but theological nature.

But had there been any ambiguity, he presently removes it, where, speaking of the different faculties exercised in the different rites of Religion, he makes *Philosophy* to be the object of the *Mysteries\**. Plutarch expresly says, that the first cause of all things is communicated to those who approach the temple of Isis with prudence and fanctity +. By which words he means, the necessary qualifications for Initiation.

We have feen Tully expresly declaring, that the Eleusinian and Samothracian Mysteries were partly employed in detecting the error of Polytheism. We shall now find Galen intimating, not obscurely, that the doctrine of the divine nature was taught in those very Mysteries. In his excellent tract Of the use of the parts of the human body, he has these words—" The study, therefore, of the use of " the parts, is not only of service to the mere physician, but of "much greater to him who joins Philosophy to the art of heal-"ing; and, in order to perfect himself in this Mystery, labours "to investigate the universal Nature. They who initiate themselves 46 here, whether private men or bodies, will find, in my opinion, " nobler instruction than in the rites either of ELEUSIS or SAMO-" THRACE I." By which he means, that the study of the use of the parts of animals, leads us easier and sooner up to the knowledge of the FIRST CAUSE, than the most venerable of the Mysteries, fuch as the Eleufinian and Samotbracian. A clear implication, that to lead men thither was their special business.

But this seems to have been so well known to the learned in the time of Eusebius, that where this writer takes occasion to observe,

<sup>\* -</sup> z tê pilesopiis.

<sup>+ -</sup> iroμάζελαι γάς Istus δε εἰσόμετοι τό δι, Αι μελά λόγοι τὸ δοίως εἰς τὰ ἰτρὰ στας ίλθυμει τῆς θεῦ. IE. τὸ ΟΣ. Edit. Franc. fol. 1599. T. II. p. 352. A. in initio libri.

<sup>‡</sup> οὐα δο ἐαξοῦ μόνον ἡ σερὶ χειίαις μορίον ἐκὶ σεραίμια χρούμια, σκολὸ δὶ μᾶλλον ἐατρῷ Φιλοσόρφ, τῶς δλος Φύσιος ἐπικόμια πλόσασθαι σπεύδοιλι, κὰ κατὶ αὐτὰν χρὰ πελιδοθαι τὰν τελιστὰν, ἄπαθας γὰρ, ός οὖμαι, κὰ κατὶ ἄθνΦ, κὰ κατὶ ἀριθμέν ἀθρόπιας, όσοι τι μυῶσιν ἐαυτὰς, ἀδλι ὅμοιον ἔχυσιν Ἑλιυσινίοις τα κὰ Σαμοθρακίοις ἀγχίως. Gal. De uſu part. lib. xvii. c. 1. p. 702. E. F. Edit. Charterii, Fol. Parif. 1679. Petit, inftead of ὅσοι τιμῶσιν ἐαυθὸς, reads very ingeniously ὅσοι τι μιῶσιν ἐπιδις. Charterius, ὅσοι τιμῶσι θιὰς.

that the Hebrews were the only people whose object, in their public and national worship, was the God of the universe, he suits his whole expression, by one continued metaphor, to the usages of the Mysteries. "For the Hebrew people alone (says he) was reserved the honour of being initiated into the knowledge of God the Creator of all things, and of being instructed in the practice of true piety towards him "." Where, ESOSITEIA, which signifies the inspection of the screen of the screen of it; and AHMIOTPOE, the Creator, the subject of it, are all words appropriated to the secret of the greater Mysteries.

JOSEPHUS is still more express. He tells Appion, that that high and fublime knowledge, which the Gentiles with difficulty attained unto, in the rare and temporary celebration of their Mysteries, was habitually taught to the Jews, at all times. And what was this fublime knowledge, but the doctrine of the UNITY? "Can any "Government (fays he) be more holy than this? or any Religion " better adapted to the nature of the Deity? Where, in any place 46 but in this, are the whole People, by the special diligence of the " Priests, to whom the care of public instruction is committed, ac-" curately taught the principles of true piety? So that the body-" politic feems, as it were, one great Assembly, constantly kept to-" gether, for the celebration of some sacred Mysteries. For those " things which the Gentiles keep up for a few days only, that is, " during those soleminities they call Mysteries and initiations, "we, with vast delight, and a plenitude of knowledge, which admits of no error, fully enjoy, and perpetually contemplate through "the whole course of our lives. If you ask (continues he) the na-"ture of those things, which in our facred rites are enjoined and of forbidden; I answer, they are simple, and easily understood. The

Vol. I. C c "first"

<sup>\*</sup> μότο δὶ τῷ 'Εξερίων γότο τὰ ΕΠΟΠΤΕΙΑΝ ἀναθθοῦσθαι τῆς ΘΕΩΡΙΑΣ τῷ τῶν ঠλου αναθὸ κὸ ΑΗΜΙΟΥΡΓΟΣ Θιῷ, κὸ τῆς εἰς αὐτὸν ἀλαδῶς εὐσεδείας. Præp. Evang. lib. i. cap. 9. See note F, at the end of this book.

" first instruction relates to the DEITY, and teaches that God con-

- " TAINS ALL THINGS, and is a Being every way perfect and happy:
- "that he is felf-existent, and the sole Cause of all existence; the
- 66 beginning, the middle, and the end of all things \*," &c.

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Nothing can be more explicit than the testimony of this learned Jew. He not only alludes to the greater Mysterics, by the direct terms of τελετῆς and μυςήρια, but uses several expressions relative to what the gentile Mystagogues taught therein; such as ἀλλόφυλοι φυλάτθων ε δύνανθαι, referring to the unsitness of the doctrine of the unity for general instruction: such as μετὰ πολλῆς ἡδοτῆς, in contradiction to what they taught of the labours, pain, and difficulties to be encountered by those who aspired to the knowledge of the first cause; such as ἀπλαῖ ἐ γνώριμοι, in contradiction to what they taught of the great intricacy and obscurity of the question; and such, again, as ἐ Θεὸς ἔχει τὰ πάνθα, the characteristic of the ΔΗΜΙΟΥΡΓΟΣ of the Mysteries.

Thus, I think, it appears, that the AHOPPHTA, in the greater mysteries, were the detection of the origine of vulgar Polytheism +; and the discovery of the doctrine of the Unity ‡.

But now I have gone thus far, I will venture one step further; and undertake to give the very HISTORY repeated, and the very HYMN sung, on these occasions, to the *initiated*. In the first of which was delivered the true origine and progress of VULGAR POLYTHEISM; and in the other, the doctrine of the UNITY.

Τίς αν δι αέχει γένοδο ταϋτης ἐστωλέρα; τίς δι Θιῷ τιμὰ μάλλοι ἀρμόζωσα, σαιλὸς μὶι τὰ σλήθως καθισκιυασμένα σερές τὰν εὐσόδικοι, ἐξαίρθοι δι τὰν ἐπιμέλεικα τῶν ἐερίων σεπιγευμένων, ῶσπες δι τελετὰς στος τὰς ἔλης πολιθίας οἰκοιομαμένης; ὰ γὰρ ἐλίγων ἡμερῶν ἀριθμὸν ἐπιθηδύσελες ἀλλόφυλοι φυλάτθειν ἀ δίναιθαι, μυτέρια κὲ τελετὰς ὁνομάζωλες, ταϋτα μέλι σωλλῆς ἡδιοῆς κὲ γνύμης ἀμεθαπείρα φυλάτθοις, ἡμιῖς λὰ τὰ σαιτὸς αἰῶνος τίκες δι εἰσιν αὶ σερβρόσεις κὲ ἀπαθερεύσεις; ἀπλαῖ τε κὲ γνώριμοι σιρότη δ ἡγιῖται σερὸ Θιᾶ, λίγωσα, ὁ Θεὸς ἔχει τὰ σάιθα σαιθελὰς κὲ μαπάριος, αὐτὸς ἱαυτῷ κὲ σῶσει αὐτάρκος, ἀχεί κὰ κὰνοικα, κὲ τίλο σάντων. Cont. Αρ. lib. ii. cap. 22. pag. 1379, lin. 30.

<sup>+</sup> See note G, at the end of this book.

<sup>\$</sup> See this account supported, and the objections to it clearly consuted, in a well reasoned tract lately printed, intitled, A Differtation on the ancient Pagan Mysteries.

For I am much mistaken, if that celebrated fragment of Sanchoniatho, the Phoenician, translated by Philo-Byblius, and preserved by Eusebius, containing a genealogical account of the sirst ages, be not that very history; as it was wont to be read to the initiated, in the celebration of the Egyptian and Phoenician Mysteries. The purpose of it being to inform us, that their popular Gods (whose chronicle is there given according to their generations) were only dead men deisied.

And as this curious and authentick record (for such we shall find it was) not only serves to illustrate the subject we are now upon, but will be of use to support what is said hereaster of the rise, progress, and order of the several species of ancient idolatry, it may not be improper to give a short extract of it in this place.

I. He tells us then, that, " of the two first mortals, Protogonus and Æon, (the latter of whom was the author of seeking and procuring food from forest trees) were begotten Genos and Genea. These, in the time of great droughts, stretched their hands upwards to the sun, whom they regarded as a God, and sole ruler of the heavens. From these, after two or three generations, came Upsouranios and his brother Ousous. One of them invented the art of building cottages of reeds and rushes; the other the art of making garments of the skins of wild beasts. In their time, violent tempests of wind and rain having rubbed the large branches of the forest-trees against one another, they took fire, and burnt up the woods. Of the bare trunks of trees, they first made vessels to pass the waters; they consecrated two pillars to fire and wind, and then offered bloody sacrifices to them as to Gods \*." And here let

<sup>\*</sup> Αίσια κ΄ Πρεδόρουν θινίδε ανδρας, στο καλυμένος εύραν δι τόν Αίσια την άπό που δίεδριο τροφέν. 
ἐκ τότον τὰς γενρμένος κλαθόναι Γένος, κ΄ Γενιάν—αύχμου δι γενρμένου, τὰς χεξιας ὁςίξειν εἰς ἐςκειὰς αφδς 
τὸν ῆλιον, τῶτον γὰς, Φιστὶ, θοὸν ἐιόριεζου μόνον ἐςκειὰ κάρον—εἶτά Φησε τὸν Ἡθαράπου οἰαθοπαι Τύρον, 
καλίδας τε ἐπινοῆσαι ἀπό καλάμου, κ΄ θρύου, κ΄ ακπύρου τασιάσαι δι αρὸς τὸν ἀδελφὸν Οὐσωὸν δς 
σκέπην τῷ σύμαδι αφῶτΦ ἐκ δερμάτων ὧν ἔσχυσε συλλαδοῦν θαρίου εὖρο, ραγδαίου δὶ γενομένου όμβος κ΄ 
ανιυμάτων ακραδροδίδα τὰ ἐν τῷ Τύρφ δίνδρα αῦς ἀνάψαι, κ΄ τὰν αὐτόθι ὅλην καδαφλέξαι. δίνδρα δι 
λαδύμενον τὸν Οὐσωὸν κὰ ἀποκλαδόσανδα αρῶτον τολμάσαι εἰς θάλασσαν ἰμδῆναι· ἀπερῶται δι δύν τάλας 
αυρί τε κὰ ανεύμαδι κὰ αροπανάσαν, άμα το σπίνδον αὐταῖς, ἐξ ὧν ῆγειε θαρίου.

it be observed, that this worship of the Elements and heavenly Bodies is truly represented as the FIRST species of idolatry.

II. "After many generations, came Chrysor; and he likewise invented many things useful to civil life; for which, after his decease, he was worshipped as a God \*. Then flourished Ouranos and his sister Ge; who desired and offered sacrifices to their father, Upsistos, when he had been torn in pieces by wild beasts +. Afterwards Cronos consecrated Muth his son, and was himself consecrated by his subjects ‡." And this is as truly represented to be the SECOND species of idolatry; the worship of dead men.

III. He goes on, and fays, that "Ouranos was the inventor of the Bætylia, a kind of animated stones, framed with great art §. And that Taautus formed allegoric figures, characters, and images of the celestial Gods and elements ||." In which is delivered the THIRD species of idolatry, statue and brute worship. For by the animated stones, is meant stones cut into a human shape \*\*; brute, unformed stones being before this invention consecrated and adored. As by Taautus's invention of allegoric figures, is insinuated (what was truly the fact) the origine of brute worship ++ from the use of HIEROGLYPHICS.

This is a very fhort and imperfect extract of the Fragment; many particulars, to avoid tediousness, are omitted, which would much

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<sup>† &#</sup>x27;O δ' τώτων φαϊός à "Τψιτος la συμβολάς θαρίων ταλιθάσας άφιερίθα, β α χοάς α θυσίας εἰ φαιδες ἐτάλισαν.

<sup>1 —</sup> Καὶ μετ' & τολὸ, ετιχον αὐτὰ ταίδα ἀπό 'Ρία; διομαζόμενου Μῦθ ἀποθανόθα ἀφιερο:—Κρώτου τοίνου, βασιλιώνε τὰς χάχας, κὴ ὕτιχον μειὰ τὰν τὰ βία τελευτὰν είς τὰν τὰ Κρόνα ἀτέχα καθεκραθείς.

<sup>§</sup> Ετι δί. Φησίν, έπενόπσε Θεὸς Ούρανὸς Βαιδύλια, λίθυς ἐμψύχυς μυχανησάμεν .....

<sup>11 —</sup> ωςδ δι τύτον θιὸς Τακιθὸς μημασάμειω τὸν Ούρωὸν τῶν θιῶν δίψεις, Κρόια τε κỳ Δαγῶνω, κỳ τῶν λοιπῶν διβύπωσεν τὰς ὑρὰς τῶν ςουχείων χωρακίδρας, δες.

<sup>\*\*</sup> So when the Egyptians first saw the Grecian artists separate the legs of their statues, they put fetters on them, to prevent their running away.

tt See Div. Leg. book iv. § 4.

support what we are upon, particularly a minute detail of the principal arts invented for the use of civil life. But what has been felected on this head will afford a good comment to a celebrated passage of Cicero, quoted, in this section, on another occasion.— As the two important doctrines, taught in fecret, were the detection of Polytheism, and the discovery of the Unity; so, the two capital doctrines taught more openly, were the origine of Society with the arts of life, and the existence of the soul after death, in a state of reward or punishments. These latter doctrines Tully hints at in the following words: "-mihi cum multa eximia divinaque videntur 44 Athenæ peperisse—tum nihil melius illis Mysteriis, quibus ex " AGRESTI immanique vita EXCULTI ad humanitatem & mitigati " fumus:-neque folum cum lætitia vivendi rationem accepimus, " fed etiam cum spe meliore moriendi \*." The Fragment explains what Tully meant by men's being drawn by the Mysteries from an irrational and savage life, and tamed, as it were, and broken to bumanity. It was, we see, by the information given them, concerning the origine of Society, and the Inventors of the ARTS OF LIFE; and the rewards they received from grateful Poslerity, for having made themselves Benefactors to mankind. Tully, who thought this a strong excitement to public virtue, provides for it in his Laws:-Livos, & eos, qui cælestes semper habiti, colunto: & ollos, quos " endo cælo MERITA vocaverint Herculem, Liberum, Æscula-" pium +," &c.

The reasons which induce me to think this Fragment the very History narrated to the Emina, in the celebration of the greater Mysteries, are these:

1. It bears an exact conformity with what the Ancients tell us that History contained in general, namely, an instruction, that all the national Gods, as well those majorum (such as Hypsistus, Ou-

<sup>\*</sup> De Legg. lib. ii. cap. 14. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III. p. 148.

<sup>+</sup> Dc Legg. lib. ii. cap. 8.

ranos, and Cronos) as those minorum gentium, were only dead men deified: together with a recommendation of the advantages of civil life above the state of nature, and an excitement to the most confiderable of the initiated (the Jumnatibus viris, as Macrobius calls them). to procure it. And these two ends are served together, in the history of the rife and progress of idolatry as delivered in this Fragment. In the date it gives to the origine of idolatry, they were instructed that the two first mortals were not idolaters, and consequently, that idolatry was the corruption of a better Religion; a matter of importance, where the purpole was to discredit Polytheism. The History shews us too, that this had the common fate of all corruptions, of falling from bad to worfe, from elementary worship to buman, and from buman to brutal. But this was not enough; it was necessary too to expose the unreasonableness of all these modes of superstition. And as this could be only done by shewing what gave birth to the feveral species's, we are told that not any occult or metaphysic influences of the heavenly or elementary Bodies upon men, but their common physical effects felt by us, occasioned the first worship to be paid unto them: that no imaginary Divinity in the minds of patriarchs and heroes occasioned Posterity to bring them into the number of the Gods; but a warm tense of gratitude for what they had invented for the introduction and promotion of civil life: and that even brute-worship was brought in without the least consideration to the animal, but as its figure was a symbol only of the properties of the two other species's. Again, in order to recommend civil life, and to excite men to promote it's advantages, a lively picture is given of his miferable condition; and how obnoxious he was, in that state, to the rage of all the elements, and how imperfectly, while he continued in it, he could, with all his industry, fence against them, by food of acorns, by cottages of reeds, and by garments of skins: a matter the Musteries thought so necessary to be impressed, that we find, by Diodorus Siculus, there was a scenical representation of this state exhibited in their shews.

And

And what stronger excitement had heroic minds, than to be taught, (as they are in this Fragment) that public benefits to their fellow-creatures were rewarded with immortality. As all these things, therefore, so essential to the instruction of the Mysteries, are here taught with an art and disposition peculiarly calculated to promote those ends, we have reason to conclude, that this History was composed for the use of the Mysteries.

- 2. My second reason for supposing it to be that very History, is our being told, that Sanchoniatho transcribed the account from secret records, kept in the penetralia of the temples, and written in a sacred sacerdotal character, called the Ammonean\*, from the place where they were first deposited; (which, as Marsham reasonably supposes, was Ammonno, or Thebes, in Egypt +) a kind of writing employed, as we have shewn elsewhere, by the Hierophants of the Messeries.
- 3. Thirdly, we are informed, that this facred commentary was composed by the Cabiri, at the command, and by the direction, of Thoth ‡. Now These were the principal Hierophants of the Mysteries. The name Cabiri is, indeed, used by the Ancients, to signify indifferently three several persons; the Gods, in whose honour the Mysteries were instituted; the institutors of the Mysteries; and the principal hierophants who officiated in them. In the first sense we find it used by Herodotus, who speaks of the images of the Cabiri in the Egyptian temples §; and by the scholiast on Apollonius, who tells us, there were four samothracian Cabiri, Axieros, Axiokersa, Axiokerso, and Casmilus; that is to say, Ceres, Proser-

<sup>— -</sup> δὶ συμβαλὰν τοῦ; ἀπὸ τῶν ἀλίτων εἰρεθεῖσαν ἀπουρύφοις ᾿Αμμασίων γράμμασι συγκειμένοις, ὰ δὰ ἐκ ἄν πῶσι γνώρμα, τὰν μάθησιν ἀπάντων αὐτὸς ὅσκυσε.

<sup>†</sup> Chron. Can. p. 234. Lond. edit.

Ι Ταύτα δί, φτοί, πρώτοι πάιλου ύπεμουμαίζετολο οἱ ἐπίὰ Συδίκ πείδες ΚΑΒΕΙΡΟΙ, κὰ ἔγλοπύτου ἀδιλφὸς ᾿Ασελυπτός, ὡς αὐτοῖς ἐυθείλαλο θεὸς Ταπεβός.

<sup>§</sup> Καμβύση:—Ιστλθε δε ας iς των Καβύρου το içon, iς το ο θημιτόν içı δούναι άλλον γι θ τον içia. ταῦτα δε τ' ἀγάλμα]α ας ινίτερου, συλλά καθασιώψας. lib. iii. cap. 37. p. 176. Edit. Gale.

pine, Pluto, and Mercury. Pausanias, in his Beotics, uses the word in the second sense, where he makes mention of the Cabiri Prometheus and his fon Ætnæus, to whom was committed the sacred deposit of the Mysteries by Ceres \*. And Strabo uses it in the third sense, where he speaks of the Cabiri as Ministers in the sacred Musteries +. It is no wonder there should be this difference amongst the ancients in their accounts of these Wights. Cabiri was a facred appellation, which was transferred from the God of the Mysteries, through the Institutors of them, down to the Miniflers who officiated in them. And in this last sense it is used by Sanchoniatho. The same kind of confusion, and proceeding from the fame cause, we find in the ancient accounts concerning the founder of the Eleusinian Mysteries, as we shall see hereaster; Some ascribing the institution to Ceres or Triptolemus, the Gods in whose honour they were celebrated; others, to Erectheus, who indeed founded them: others again, to Eumolpus and Musæus, the first who ministred there in the office of Hierophants.

4. But, fourthly and lastly, We are told, that when this genealogical history came into the hands of a certain son of Thabion, the first Hierophant on record amongst the Phænicians, he, after having corrupted it with allegories, and intermixed physical and cosmical affections with historical (that is, made the one significative of the other) DELIVERED IT TO THE PROPHETS OF THE ORGIES, AND THE HIEROPHANTS OF THE MYSTERIES; who left it to their successors (one of which was Osiris) and to the Initiated ‡. So

<sup>\*</sup> Πόλιν γάς τολι ἐν τάτφ φασὶν εἶκαι τῷ χυρίφ, κὰ ἄνδιας διομαζομένας Καθείρας. Περιμθεί δὶ ἐκὶ τὰν Καθειραίων κὰ Αίταιφ τῷ Προμμθείως άφικομένην Δήμητραν ἐς γνῶσιν τας ακαλαθόσθαι σφίσιν. ἄτις μὰν δὰ τὰν τὰ τομακαλαθόκη, κὰ τὰ ἐς αὐτὰν γινόμενα, ἀκ ἐφαίνελο ὅσιόν μοι γράφειν. Δημαθρός γῶν Κασθεμοίος δῷρόν ἐς νὰ τελείτ. Βποτ. lib. ix. cap. 25. pag. 758, 59. Edit. Kuknii, fol. Lipf. 1696.

<sup>† —</sup> τῶν μὰν, τὰς αὐτὰς τοῖς Κορᾶσι τὰς Κορίδανίας κỳ ΚΑΒΕΙΡΟΥΣ κỳ Ἰδαίνς Δακίδιας, κỳ Το χῆνας ἀποφαιιόντων τῶν δι συγγενῖς ἀλλάλων, κỳ μίαράς τινας ἀυτῶν αρὸς ἀλλάλως διαξοςὰς διαςυλλόνων. lib. x. p. 466. C. Edit. Parif. folio. 1620.

<sup>1</sup> Ταύτα πάθα ὁ Θαθίωθο παϊς, πρώτθο τῶν ἀπ' αἰδιθο γεθεύτων Φιούκων ἐιροψάθης ἀλλαγοράσας, τοῦς τι φυσικοῖς κỳ κοσμικοῖς πάθισει ἀναμέξας παρίδωκε τεῖς ΟΡΓΙΩΣὶ κỳ ΤΕΛΕΤΩΝ καθάρχωσε ΠΡΟ-ΦΗΤΑΙΣ. οἱ δὲ τὸν τύφου αὐξιει ἐκ παθὸς ἐπινοῦθες, τοῦς αὐτῶν διαδίκεις παρίδωσαν κỳ τοῦς ἐπινοῦθες, τοῦς αὐτῶν διαδίκεις παρίδωσαν κỳ τοῦς ἐπινοῦθες, τοῦς αὐτῶν διαδίκεις παρίδωσαν κỳ τοῦς ἐπινοῦθες.

that now we have an express testimony for the fact here advanced, that this was the very bistory read to the EPOPTAI in the celebration of the great Mysteries.

But one thing is too remarkable to pass by unobserved: and that is. Sanchoniatho's account of the corruption of this History with allegories and physical effections, by one of his own countrymen; and of it's delivery, in that state, to the Egyptians, (for Isiris is the fame as Osiris) who corrupted it still more. That the Pagan Mythology was, indeed, thus corrupted, I have shewn at large, in several parts of this work: but I believe, not so early as is here pretended; which makes me suspect that Sanchoniatho lived in a later age than his interpreter, Philo, assigns to him. And what confirms me in this suspicion, is that mark of national vanity and partiality, common to after-times, in making the Mysteries of his own country original, and conveyed from Phœnicia to Egypt. Whereas it is very certain, they came first from Egypt. But of this elsewhere. However, let the reader take notice, that the question concerning the antiquity of Sanchoniatho does not at all affect our inference concerning the nature and use of this History \*.

We now come to the HYMN celebrating the Unity of the Godhead, which was fung in the *Eleusinian Mysteries* by the Hierophant, habited like the CREATOR +. And this, I take ! to be the little or-

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<sup>\*</sup> See note H, at the end of this book.

<sup>†</sup> Έ, δὶ τοῖς κατ' EΛΕΥΣΙΝΑ μυτιφίοις, ὁ μὸν 'Ιιροφάιδις εἰς εἰκινα τῶ δαμιυροῦ ἐνσαιοκίζιλει. Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. iii. A passage in Porphyry well explains this of Eusebius, and shews by what kind of personage the Creator was represented; and that this, like all the rest, was of Egyptian original; and introduced into these secret mysteries, for the reason above explained. Τὰ δὶ τῶν ΑΙΓΥΠΤΙΩΝ Φάλιν τοιαῦτά φυσιν ἔχιν σύμδολα. Τὸν ΔΗΜΙΟΤΡΓΟΝ, ὁν Κνὰφ, οἱ Λἰγόπλοι προσαδομύσουν ΑΝΘΡΩΠΟΕΙΔΗ, τὰν δὲ χροιὰν ἰκ κυανδ μόλαι-Φ ἔχωθα, κραθῶθα ζύτην κὴ συῦτεξων 'ἐπὶ δὶ τῆς κιψαλῆς, πθιρὸν βασίλιου συμκείμενου, ΟΤΙ ΛΟΓΟΣ ΔΥΣΕΥΡΕΤΟΣ ΚΑΙ ΚΕΚΡΥΜΕΝΟΣ, ΚΑΙ ΟΤ ΦΑΝΟΣ, κὴ ὅτι ξωσποιὸς, κὴ ὅτι βασιλιὸς, κὴ ὅτι σοιρῶς κινεῖταιν λὸ ἡ τῶ σθερῦ φύσις ἐν τῷ κιφαλῷ κεῖται. Apud Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. iii. Cap. 11.

<sup>†</sup> M. Voltaire, in his remarks on his fine Tragedy of Olympia, has done me the honour of advancing this conjecture into a certainty; and what is more, of a known and acknowledged fact. "On chantait (says he) PHymne de Orphie"—and then gives it as he finds it here.

PHIC poem quoted by Clemens Alexandrinus \* and Eusebius †; which begins thus: "I will declare a SECRET to the Initiated; but "let the doors be shut against the profane. But thou, O Museus, "the offspring of bright Selene, attend carefully to my song; for "I shall deliver the truth without disguise. Suffer not, therefore, "thy former prejudices to debar thee of that happy life, which the knowledge of these sublime truths will precure unto thee: but carefully contemplate this divine Oracle, and preserve it in purity of mind and heart. Go on, in the right way, and contemplate the sole governor of the world: he is one, and of him- self alone; and to that one all things owe their being. He operates through all, was never seen by mortal eyes, but does himself see every one !."

The reasons which support my conjecture are these: 1. We learn from the scholiast on Aristophanes and others, that hymns were sung in the mysteries, and what were the subject of them. And Dion. Chrys. in his Oration De divina Civitate aut Gubernatione, says expressly, that in the Mithriac Mysteries the Magi sung an awful Hymn in which the glories of the supreme God who governs all things were celebrated §—And surther says, that this knowledge of the One supreme was kept a secret amongst the initiated Per-

- \* Admonitio ad gentes, pag. 36. B. Edit. Sylburgh.
- + Præp. Evang. lib. xiii.
- Τ Φθίς ξομαι οἶς θίμις ἐτο, θύρας ở ἐπίθισθι βιθάλοις
  Παϊοίς ἐμιῦς, σὰ ở ἄπας: Φαισφόρυ ἔπγοτα μύτας,
  Νιοσαῖ, ἰξιρίω γὰς ἀληθία, μαδό σε τὰ αφὶν
  Ἐτ τάθεσοι Φαιέθα Φίλης αἰῦν- ἀμέροη:
  Εἰς δὲ λόγοι θεῖου βλάψας, τώτω αξοσθέρους,
  'Πθουν πραδίας ουερὸυ πύτ- ἐῦ ở ἐπίδαινο
  'Λὴκατίῦς, μῦνου ở ἐσέρα πόσμοιο ἄνακία.
  Βἴς ở ἔτ' αὐτογονὸς, ἐνὸς ἔπγοτα, πάιλα τέτυπλαι,
  'Εν ở αὐτοῖ; αὐτὸς αυμούσσελαι: ἀδά σες αὐτὸο
  Εἰσοράα θιηθῶν, αὐτὸς δὲ γι αάλας ἐρᾶται.

g μόθος is åποβήτους τιλιαίς ύπο Μάγον άνθρος αλέλαι Θαυμαζόμειος, el tès Isb τύτου υμινσον ώς τελιίωλε καλ σχώτος ήρφοχου το τελικολάτο άρμαλος.

sians. 2. Orpheus, as we have said, first brought the Mysteries from Egypt into Thrace, and even Religion itself: hence it was called Opponeia, as being supposed the invention of the Thracian. 3. The verses, which go under the name of Orpheus, are, at least, more ancient than Plato and Herodotus; though fince interpolated. It was the common opinion, that they were genuine; and those who doubted of that, yet gave them to the earliest Pythagoreans \*. 4. The subject of them are the Mysteries, under the several titles of + Θρονισμοί μηβρώοι τελεβαί, ίερες λέγΦ, and ή είς άδε καβάζασις. 5. Pausanias tells us, that Orpheus's hymns were sung in the rites of Ceres, in preference to Homer's though more elegant, for the reasons given above t. 6. This hymn is addressed to Museus, his disciple, who was said, though falfely, to institute the Mysleries at Athens, as his master had done in Thrace §; and begins with the formula used by the Mystagogue on that occasion, warning the PROPHANE to keep at distance; and in the fourth line, mentions that new life or regeneration, to which the Initiated were taught to aspire. 7. No other original than singing the hymns of Orpheus in the Eleusinian Mysteries, can be well imagined of that popular opinion, mentioned by Theodoret, that Orpheus instituted those Mysteries ||, when the Athenians had such certain records of another Founder. 8. We are told that one article of the Athenians' charge against Diagoras for revealing the

<sup>\*</sup> Laertius in Vita Pythag. and Suidas, voce 'Oeprif.

<sup>+</sup> The following passage of Dion. Chrys. will explain the meaning of this Gensephic-Καθάπες ειδθαστι τι τῷ καλυμένο ΘΡΟΝΙΣΜΩ, καθίσαιθες τὸς μυσμένος οἰ τελδίθες, κόκλο σεςεχοριόπο Orat. xii.

I "Oris di miei montosus, irodungaluimosi, non rus Oppius uuines alden bilas, Inario re autum, imi βερχύταλος, મુટ્ટે ૧૯ σύμπαι છેલ દેદ તૈરૂરીμές જાઓપ જાજાનામાંભદ્ર. - Αυτομάλαι δε દિવાઈ ૧૧ મુટ્ટે વેજર્જી ૧૫૦ જે يَا فِي اللَّهِ اللَّهِ وَاللَّهِ عَنِي عَلَى اللَّهِ عِبِولَا لِي عَلَى مِنْ اللَّهِ عَلَى اللَّهِ اللَّهِ عَل whice intime igner. Pausan, lib. ix. cap. 30. sub fin. pag. 770. Edit. Kuhnii, fol. Lips. 1696. and again, to the same purpose, cap. 27.

<sup>§</sup> Tertuil. Apol.

<sup>#</sup> See note p. 123.

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Mysteries, was his making the Orphic-speech, or hymn, the subject of his common conversation \*. 9. But lastly, the account, which Clemens gives of this hymn, seems to put the matter out of question: his words are these: "But the Thracian Mystagogue, who " was at the same time a poet, Orpheus, the son of Oeager, after " he had opened the Mysteries, and fung the whole THEOLOGY OF 46 IDOLS, recants all he had faid, and introduceth TRUTH. The 66 Sacreds then truly begin, though late, and thus he enters upon "the matter +." To understand the force of this passage, we are to know, that the Mystagogue explained the representations in the Mysteries; where, as we learn from Apuleius 1, the supernal and infernal Gods passed in review. To each of these they sung an hymn; which Clemens calls the theology of images, or idols. These are yet to be seen amongst the works ascribed to Orpheus. When all this was over, then came the ANOPPHTA, delivered in the HYMN in question. And, after that, the Assembly was dismissed, with these two barbarous words, KOPE OMNAE, which shews the Mysteries not to have been originally Greek. The learned Mr. Le Clerc well observes, that this seems to be only an ill pronounciation of kots and omphets, which, he tells us, fignify in the Phœnician tongue, watch and abstain from evil §.

Thus the reader is brought acquainted with the end and use both of the greater and lesser Mysteries; and sees that, as well in what they bid, as in what they divulged, all aimed at the benefit of the State. To this end, they were to draw in as many as they could to their general participation; which they did by spreading abroad

<sup>\*</sup> Διαγέρα μὲν γὰς εἰκότως ἐνεκάλων 'Αθεναϊοι, μὰ μόνοι τὸν ΟΡΦΙΚΟΝ εἰς μέσοι καλαλιβέτλι ΛΟΓΟΝ, κὰ τὰ τὰν Καδείρων δημεύουλ μυτύρια. Athenagoras in Legat.

<sup>† &#</sup>x27;Ο δι Θερίκι το ειερφά είτες το ποιτιλες τημα, ε το Οιάγρα 'Ορφινες, μετά την του 'Οργίου ειερφαείται, τη των ειδύλετ την θιολογίαι, απαλιφρίαι αλπηλίας είσαγοι, του ειερν διίος διός απολε, διμος δ΄ διο βίδου λόγου. Admon. ad Gentes, pag. 36. A. Edit. Sylburgh.

<sup>‡</sup> Accessi consinium mortis, deos inseros, & deos superos accessi coram, & adoravi de proximo. Met. lib. xi. p. 1000. circa sinem. Edit. Lugd. 1587. 8vo.

<sup>§</sup> Bitl. Univ. tom. vi. p. 86.

the doctrine of a Providence, and a future state; and how much happier the Initiated should be, and what superior felicities they were intitled to, in another life. It was on this account that Antiquity is so full and express in this part. But then, they were to make those, they had got in, as virtuous as was possible; which they did, by discovering, to such as were judged capable of the secret, the whole delusion of Polytheism. Now this being supposed the shaking of foundations, was to be done with all possible circumspection, and under the most tremendous seal of secrecy \*. For they taught, that the Gods themselves punished the revealers of the SECRET; and not them only, but the bearers of it likewise +. Nor did they altogether trust to that alone: for, more effectually to curb an ungovernable curiofity, the State decreed capital punishment against the betrayers of the Mysteries, and inflicted it with merciless severity 1. The case of Diagoras, the Melian, is too remarkable to be omitted. This man had revealed the Orphic and Eleusinian Mysteries: and so, passed with the people for an Atheist: which at once confirms what hath been said of the object of the secret dectrines, and of the mischief which would attend an indiscreet communication of them. For the charge of ATHEISM was the common lot of all those who communicated their knowledge of the one only God; whether they learnt it by natural light, or were afterwards taught it by Revelation. He likewise dissuaded his friends from being initiated into these rites: the consequence of which was, that the city of Athens proscribed him, and set a price upon his head §. While

<sup>\*</sup> See cap. 20. of Meursius's Eleusinia.

<sup>† —</sup>Queras forsitan satis anxie, studiose lector, quid deinde dictum, quid sactum? Dicerem, si dicere liceret; cognosceres, si liceret audire; sed parem noxam contraherent aures & lingua temeraria curiositatis. Apul. Met. lib. xi. p. 1000. Edit. Lugd. 8vo, 1587.

<sup>1</sup> Si quis arcanæ mysteria Cereris sacra vulgâsset, lege morti addicebatur. The istration value province volution. Meminit hujus legis Sopater in Divisione quæssionis. Sam. Petit, in Leges Atticas, p. 33.

<sup>§</sup> Suidas, voce Διαγήτας & Μέλι & ........ & etiam Athenagoras in Legatione.

Socrates, who preached up the latter part of this doctrine (and was on that account a reputed Atheist likewise) and Epicurus, who taught the former (and was a real one) were suffered, because they delivered their opinions only as points of philosophic speculation, amongst their followers, to live a long time unmolested. And to avoid the danger of those laws, which secured the secret of the Mysteries, was perhaps the reason why Socrates declined initiation \*. And this appearing a fingular affectation, exposed him to much censure +. But he declined it with his usual prudence. He remembered, that Æschylus I, on a mere imagination of his having given a hint of fomething in the Mysteries, had like to have been torn in pieces on the stage by the people; and only escaped by an appeal to the Areopagus: which venerable court acquitted him of this dangerous Charge, on his proving that he had never been initiated. The famous EUHEMERUS, who assumed the same office of Hierophant to the People at large, with more boldness than Socrates, and more temper than Epicurus, employed another expedient to screen himself from the laws, though he fell, and not (like the rest) undeservedly &, under the same imputation of Atheism. This man gave a fabulous relation of a voyage to the imaginary island of Panchæa ||, a kind of ancient Utopia; where, in a temple of Jupiter, he found a genealogical record, which discovered to him the births and deaths of the greater Gods; and, in short, every thing that the Hierophant revealed to the Initiated on this subject. Thus he too avoided the suspicion of a betrayer of the Mysteries. A character infamous in social life. And to this the Son of Sirach

<sup>\*</sup> For that he had a good opinion of the Mylicries appears from the Phade of Plate.

<sup>†</sup> Karrlegible,- ere i μυθθα μότΦ à πάιθαν ταϊς Έλινσινίαις. Lucianus, Demonacte, T. 11, p. 380. Edit, Reitzii, 4to. Amstel. 1743.

<sup>‡</sup> Clem. Alex. Strom. ii. pag. 283. B. Edit, Sylburg. & Arist. lib. iii. cap. 1. Nicom. Eth.

<sup>§</sup> See note I, at the end of this book.

<sup>#</sup> Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. ii. cap. 3.

alludes, where he speaks of this species of insidelity in general \*—
"" Whoso discovereth SECRETS [musiqua], loseth his credit, and shall
"never find friend to his mind." This, therefore, is the reason
why so little is to be met with, concerning the ANOPPHTA. Varro
and Cicero, the two most inquisitive persons in antiquity, affording but a glimmering light. The first giving us a short account of
the cause only of the SECRET, without mentioning the dostrine; and
the other, a hint of the dostrine, without mentioning the cause.

But now a remarkable exception to all we have been faying, concerning the fecrecy of the Mysteries, obtrudes itself upon us, in the case of the CRETANS; who, as Diodorus Siculus assures us, celebrated their Mysteries openly, and taught their an oppnous without reserve. His words are these: " At Cnossus in Crete, it was " provided for, by an ancient law, that these Myseries should be ss shewn openly to all: and that those things, which in other " places were delivered in fecret, should be hid from none who "were defirous of knowing them +." But, as contrary as this feems to the principles delivered above, it will be found, on attentive reflection, altogether to confirm them. We have shewn, that the great fecret was the detection of Polytheisin; which was done by teaching the original of the Gods; their birth from mortals; and their advancement to divine honour, for benefits done to their Country, or Mankind. But it is to be observed, that the Cretans proclaimed this to all the world, by thewing, and boafting of the tomb of Jupiter himself, the Father of Gods and Men. How then could they tell that as a fecret in their Mysleries, which they told to every one out of them? Nor is it less remarkable that the Cretans themselves, as Diodorus, in the same place, tells us, gave this very

<sup>\* 8</sup> dronadúrios MTETHPIA, drúdios mísu, zid pi súga fidos mede sir fuzir aisi. Cap.

<sup>†</sup> Kalà δι την Κεύτην is Κνυσσφ νόμιμου ίξ άρχαιου ιδιαι φαιιρώς τας τελείας ταύτας απόν απεραδιώσθαι, η τα απερα τοις αλλοις is απερίττη απεραδιμένα, απερ αυτοίς μηδίνα περάθειο των βολομένου τα τοιαύτα γινώσκου. Biblioth. lib, v.

circumstance of their celebrating the Mysteries openly as a proof of their being the first who had consecrated dead mortals. "These 4 are the old stories which the Cretans tell of their Gods, who, "they pretend to fay, were born amongst them. And they urge 66 this as an invincible reason to prove that the adoration, the "worship, and the MYSTERIES of these Gods were first derived " from Crete to the rest of the world; for, whereas, amongst "the Athenians, those most illustrious Mysteries of all, called the " Eleufinian, those of Samothrace, and those of the Ciconians in "Thrace, of Orpheus's institution, are all celebrated in SECRET: "yet in Crete "---and so on as above. For it seems the Cretans were proud of their invention; and used this method to proclaim and perpetuate the notice of it. So when Pythagoras, as Porphyry + informs us, had been initiated into the Cretan mysteries, and had continued in the Idean cave three times nine days, he wrote this epigram on the tomb of Jupiter,

\* Ωδε θανών κεϊται Ζάν, δυ Δία κικλήσκυσιν. Zan, whom men call Jupiter, lies here deceased.

It was this which so much exasperated the other Grecians against them; and gave birth to the common proverb of KPHTED AEI YEYDTAI, The Cretans are eternal liars. For nothing could more

And Nonnus:

Οὐ γὰς ἀεὶ ἐκερίμιμος Διὸ; ΫΕΥΔΗΜΟΝΙ ΤΥΜΒΩι.

Τιςτομένα Κράτισσιν, έπεὶ πέλος άπεροπάες. Dionys. lib. viii.

And Lucan;

Tam mendax Magni tumulo, quam Creta Tonantis. lib, viii.

affront

<sup>\*</sup> Πιεί μὶν ὖν τῶν θιῶν οἱ Κε̞ὰτις τῶν παρ' αὐτοῖς λεγομένων γενισθάναι τοιαῦτα μυθολογῶν» τὰς δὰ τιμὰς κỳ θυσίας κỳ τὰς ατεὰ τὰ μυτήεια τιλείὰς ἐκ Κρύτης εἰς τὰς ἄλλας ἀνθρώπας αταραδιδίσθαι λέγουλες, τὰτο Φέρωνιν, ὡς οὖοθαι, μέγιτου τικμάςιου τάθι γὰς ατεὰ 'Λθαναίοις ἐυ 'Ελιυσῖο γιομένου τελιθη, ἐπιφαικότην σχεδόν ὄσαν ἀπασῶν, κỳ τὰν ἐν Εαμοθερίκη, κỳ τὰν ἐν Θερίκη ἐυ τοῖς Κικόσιν (ἔθιν ὁ καθαδίξας 'ΌςΦιὺς ἦν) μυτικῶς απεραδιδισθαι, κατὰ δὶ τὰν Κράτην——

<sup>+</sup> De vita Pythag. n. xvii.

Қейтек ай фейган 2 ГАР тафы, 5 ала, ото
 Кейтек ітийында.
 Callim. Hymn. in Jovem.

affront these superstiticus idolaters than asserting the sact, or more displease the politic protectors of the Misseries than the divulging it \*.

The MYSTERIES then being of so great service to the state, we shall not be surprized to hear the wifest of the Ancients speaking highly in their commendation; and their ablest Lawgivers, and reformers, providing carefully for their support. "Ceres (favs "Isocrates) hath made the Athenians two presents of the greatest " consequence: corn, which brought us out of a state of brutality; " and the MYSTERIES, which teach the initiated to entertain the " most agreeable expectations touching death and eternity +." And Plato introduceth Socrates speaking after this manner; "In my opinion, those who established the Mysteries, whoever they "were, were well skilled in human nature. For in these rites it " was of old fignified to the aspirants, that those who died with-" out being initiated, stuck fast in mire and filth: but that he who " was purified and initiated, should, at his death, have his habita-"tion with the Gods t." And Tully thought them of fuch use to Society, for preserving and propagating the doctrine of a suture state of rewards and punishments, that in the law where he forbids nocturnal facrifices offered by women, he makes an express exception for the Mysteries of Ceres, as well as for the facrifices to the GOOD GODDESS. " Nocturna mulierum sacrificia ne sunto, præter " olla, quæ pro populo rite fiant. Neve quem initianto, nisi, ut " affolet, Cereri, Graco facro." Which law he thus comments :- . " M. But now, Titus, as to what follows, I would fain know how " you can give your affent, or I blame you for with-holding it?

<sup>\*</sup> See note K, at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> Δήμαζο ---- δίσας δυριάς διεθάς, αίπες μέγεται τυίχώνουν δοαι' τώς τε παρπός οι τθ'μά θαριυδύς ζαι άμας αίτιοι γιγένασει κέ τὰν τελεθόν, ας οι μεθέχειθες αυρί τε τὰς τὰ βία τελιυτάς, κέ τὰ σύμπαιθο αίδιο άδιας τὰς ελπέδας έχωσει. Pancgyr.

<sup>1</sup> Καὶ κινθυπόνου κỳ οἱ τὰς τιλιὰς ἡμιῦ ἔτοι καίκεψεκιθες, ἐ ζῶνλοί τικε εἶοκι ἀλλὰ τῷ ἱοἱ ἀπέλκι αἰντίκοθαι, ὅτι δς ἀι ἀμείκθο, κỳ ἀτίλισο, εἰς κόλο ἀζίκιθαι, ἱι Βοςδέρμ κείετίκε ' ὁ δὲ κικαθαρμίοθο το κỳ τίλλισμόθο, ἴκικοι ἀφικόμιοθο, μετὰ θιῶν οἰκέσει. In l'hædone.

" A. What is that, I pray you? M. The law concerning the noc-"turnal facrifices of women. A. I affent to it, especially as there "is an express exception to the public and solemn sacrifice. " M. What then will become of our Eleufinian Rites, those re-" verend and august Mysteries, if, indeed, we take away nocturnal " celebrations? For our laws are calculated, not only for the Roman, " but for all just and well established policies. A. I think you except "those, into which we ourselves have been initiated. M. Doubtless I "do: for as, in my opinion, your Athens hath produced many ex-46 cellent and even divine inventions, and applied them to the use " of life: so has she given nothing better than those Mysteries, "by which we are drawn from an irrational and favage life, 44 and tamed, as it were, and broken to humanity. They are "truly called INITIA, for they are indeed the beginnings of " a life of reason and virtue. From whence we not only re-" ceive the benefits of a more comfortable and elegant subsistence " here, but are taught to bope for, and aspire to a better life bereafter, 44 But what it is that displeases me in nocturnal rites, the comic " poets will shew you ". Which liberty of celebration, had it been " permitted at Rome, what wickedness would not HE + have 44 attempted, who came with a premeditated purpose of indulging "his lust, to a Sacrifice where even the misbehaviour I of the eye " was deeply criminal §."

We

<sup>\*</sup> See note L, at the end of this Book.

<sup>+</sup> See note M, at the end of this Book.

The Ancients esteemed that to be the greatest misbehaviour of the eye, where the sight of men obtruded, though only by accident, upon those Mysteries, which it was only lawful for women to behold.

<sup>§</sup> M. At vero, quod sequitur, quomodo aut tu assentiare, aut ego reprehendam, sane quero, Tite. A. Quid tandem id est? M. De nocturnis sacrificiis mulierum. A. Ego vero assentior, excepto præsertim in ipsa lege solemni sacrificio ac publico. M. Quid ergo aget lacchus Eumolpidæque vestri [nostri alii], & augusta illa mysteria, siquidem sacra nocturna tollimus? non enim populo Romano, sed omnibus bonis sirmisque populis leges damus. A. Excipis, credo, illa, quibus ipsi initiati sumus. M. Ego vero excipiam.

We have feen, that the other exception to this law against nocturnal facrifices, was in favour of the rites performed to the GOOD GODDESS, called the public and folemn sacrifice. This was offered pro populo, for the safety of the people. So that Cicero, ranking the Eleusinian with these rites, appears to have thought them in the number of fuch as were celebrated for the public fafety. Solon, the famous lawgiver of Athens, long before him, had the fame high opinion of these Mysteries, as is seen by the care he took of their regulation; and so had Prætextatus, a most accomplished Roman Magistrate, long after him: For when his master, Valentinian, had divided the Empire with his brother, and projected a general reform of the laws, and, amongst the rest, had forbid Noc-TURNAL SACRIFICES; he was perfuaded by Prætextatus, who governed for him in Greece, to make an exception for the Mysteries of Ceres; which had been brought to Rome very early \*, and incorporated into the national worship +, and long afterwards regulated anew by the wife emperor Hadrian 1.

Zolimus tells the ftory in this manner: "The fupreme power being thus divided, Valentinian entered on his new command with a more ferious attention to his office. He reformed the

excipiam. Nam mihi cum multa eximia divinaque videntur Athenæ tuæ peperisse, atque in vita hominum attulisse, tum nihil melius illis mysteriis, quibus ex agresti immanique vita exculti ad humanitatem, & mitigati sumus; initiaque, ut appellantur, ita revera principia vitæ cognovimus; neque solum cum lætitia vivendi rationem accepimus, sed etiam cum spe meliore moriendi. Quid autem mihi displiceat in nocturnis, Poëtæ indicant Comici. Qua licentia Romæ data, quidnam egisset ille, qui in sacrisscium cogitatam libidinem intulit, quo ne imprudentiam quidem oculorum adjici sas suit? De Legg. lib. ii. cap. 14. Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III. p. 148, 49.

As appears by Tully's Oration for Corn. Balbus, and by a passage in his second book, cap. 24. Of the nature of the Gods, quoted above; and likewise from Dionys. Hal. lib. i. cap. 33. Antiq. ''théoraile & 2 Δτρική ις μ, 2 τὰς θυτίας αὐτῆ διὰ γεναιιών τι μ' καβαλίως εθυσαι, ὡς Ελλωςι κόμΦ, ὧ τὰθὶ ἐκαθ ἡμᾶς ὅλλαξι χρώΦ.

<sup>+</sup> Suetonius, Vita Aug. cap. 93. T. I. p. 354. Edit. Pitisci, 17:4, 410.

<sup>2</sup> Aurel. Victor. in Hadr.

" Magistracy, he regulated the Revenue, and, by a rigid exaction of the Duties, secured the pay of the soldiery, which arose our " of that fund: and having determined likewise to new model and " promulge the imperial Institutes, beginning, as they say, from " the foundation, he forbad the celebration of all NOCTURNAL rites 44 and facrifices; with defign to obviate the enormities which the opportunity of these seasons gave birth to, and enflamed. But 46 when Prætextatus, a man adorned with every virtue both of 66 public and private life, who then governed Greece in quality of " proconful, had given him to understand that this law would oc-" casion great disorders in Greece, and even throw the inhabitants " into despair, when they should find that they were forbidden to " celebrate, according to ancient custom, those most holy Mysle-" ries, which had now taken in the whole race of mankind, he " gave leave to a suspension of his law, with regard to These; on " condition, however, that every thing should be reduced to the " primitive purity and simplicity "." Thus the ELEUSINIAN MYS-TERIES got a reprieve, till the reign of Theodosius the elder. when they were finally abolished. The terms Prætextatus used to shew the ill consequence of the suppression, are very remarkable: he said, the Greeks would, from thenceforth, lead ABIQTON BION, a comfortles lifeless life. But this could not be faid, with any truth, or propriety, of the taking away a mere religious rite. how venerable foever it was become by its antiquity. To apprehend the force of the expression, we must have in mind what hath been faid of the doctrines taught in those Rites, namely, a Providence,

<sup>\*</sup> Τύς τοίνον άρχης ώτω διαιριθείσης ὁ Οὐαλιολικανός εμβριθέςτερον τη άρχη προσελθών, άρχονδάς το εν πόσμο προύθρεν, κ) περί τὰς είσπράξεις τῶν είσθορῶν, κ) τὰς ἐκ τότων χοριθυμένας εραλιολικάς σελόσεις, ἀκριθέταιθ» ἢν ἐπεὶ δι κ) τόμων εἰσθορὰς ἐγνώκει ποιήποσθαι, ἀθ΄ ἐκίας ῶσπερ ἀρξάμειθ», τὰς κυπλερικάς εἰκλυει θυσίας ἐπελιλιόθαι, τοῦς μυσπρός μὲν δι πρατθρείνοις ἐμποδών διὰ τῶ τοιῶδι κόμω γενέσθαι Ειελίμειθ» ἐπεὶ δὶ Πραιλεξτάτθ», ὁ τῆς Ἑλλάθθ» τὰν ἀνθύπαδον ἔχων ἀρχὴν, ἀνὰς ἐν πάσπες διαπρόπων ταῖς ἀρλιολιόμει τὸν κόμων καλιοδαι τὰ ἀρλιολιόμει κυλύεσθαι τὰ συνέχοιδα τὸ ἀνθρώπειοι γένος ἀγιώταδα μυτώμα καλά θεσμόν ἐκλιλιο ἐπετρεψεν, ἀργῶνθθ» τὰ κόμων πρώτλούν δὶ πάιδα καὶὰ τὰ ἐξ άρχης πάτρα. Lib, iv, Hist. Novæ.

and a future state of rewards and punishments, on whose sole account the Rites were instituted. Now these doctrines being in themselves of the most engaging nature; taught here in the most interesting manner; and receiving from hence their chief credit; it was no wonder that the Greeks should esteem the abolition of the MYSTERIES as the greatest evil: the life of man being, indeed, without the comfort and support of these doctrines, no better than a living death: hence it was, that the sage Isocrates called the MYSTERIES, the thing, buman nature principally stands in need of \*. And that Aristides said, the welfare of Greece was secured by the Eleusinian Mysteries alone +. Indeed the Greeks seemed to place their chief happiness in them: so Euripides makes Hercules say ‡, I was blest when I got a sight of the mysteries: and it was a proverbial speech, when any one thought himself in the highest degree happy, to say, I seem as if I had been initiated in the highest mysteries §.

1. But now, such is the fate of human things. These Mysteres, venerable as they were, in their first institution, did, it must be owned, in course of time, fearfully degenerate; and those very provisions made by the State, to enable the Mysteries to obtain the end of their establishment, became the very means of deseating it. For we can assign no surer cause of the horrid abuses and corruptions of the Mysteries (besides time, which naturally and fatally depraves and vitiates all things) than the season in which they were represented; and the prosound silence in which they were buried. For night gave opportunity to wicked men to attempt evil actions; and secrecy, encouragement to perpetrate them; and the inviolable nature of that secrecy, which encouraged abuses, kept them from the Magistrate's knowledge so long, till it was too late to reform them. In a word, we must own, that these Mysteries

<sup>\*</sup> Ov wedter à pione quar idiéen. Panegyr.

<sup>†</sup> μόνος Έλευσινίας υγίαινεν à Ελλάς. Eleus.

<sup>1</sup> Tà purio d' igli sù róxno' idio. Here, furens, ver. 613.

<sup>§</sup> Έποπθεύτον μει δοκώ.

teries, so powerful in their first institution for the promotion of VIRTUE and KNOWLEDGE \*, became, in time, horribly subservient to the gratification of LUST and REVENGE +. Nor will this appear at all strange after what hath been said above. A like corruption, from the same cause, crept even into the Church, during the purest ages of it. The primitive christians, in imitation, perhaps, of these pagan rites, or from the fame kind of spirit, had a custom of celebrating Vigils in the night; which, at first, were performed with all becoming fanctity: but, in a little time, they were so over-run with abuses, that it was necessary to abolish them. The account Bellarmine gives of the matter, is this: "Quoniam occasione noc-"turnarum vigiliarum abusus quidam irrepere cœperant, vel potius " flagitia non raro committi, placuit ecclesiæ nocturnos conventus 5 & vigilias proprie dictas intermittere, ac folum in iiidem diebus " celebrare jejunia 1." And the same remedy, Cicero & tells us, Diagondas the Theban was forced to apply to the disorders of the Mysteries.

2. However, this was not the only, though it was the most powerful cause of the depravation of the Mysteries. Another doubtless was their being sometimes under the patronage of those Deities, who were supposed to inspire and preside over sensual passions, such as Bacchus, Venus, and Cupid; for these had all their Mysteries: And where was the wonder, if the Initiated should be sometimes inclined to give a loose to those vices, in which the patron God was supposed to delight? And in this case, the HIDDEN DOCTRINE came too late to put a stop to the disorder. However, it is remark-

<sup>\* ---</sup>Τὰ μυτήρια-ότι ἐπὶ ακιδιία κὰ ἐνανοβύσα τῷ βίυ καθεράθη πάθα ταῦτα ὑπὸ τῷν Φαλαιῶν.

<sup>† \*</sup>Η γάς τικοφόνες ΤΕΛΕΤΑΣ, & ΚΡΥΦΙΑ ΜΥΣΤΗΡΙΑ, & έμμακις έξ Ελλων θισμών κύμυς άγπος, Ούτι βίας ατι γάμας καθαρός έτι φυλάσσατιι, έτις» δ'έτιςοι ή ΛΟΧΩΝ ΑΝΑΙΡΕΙ, ή ΝΟ-ΘΕΥΩΝ OATNA. Wildom of Solomon, xiv. 23, 24.

<sup>‡</sup> De Eccl. Triumph. lib. iii. cap. ult.

<sup>§ —</sup>Atque omnia nocturna, ne nos duriores forte videamur, in media Græcia Diagondas Thebanus lege perpetua fustulit. De Legg. lib. ii. cap. 15. Edit. Ox. 4to. Tom. III. p. 149.

able, and confirms what hath been said concerning the origin of the Mysteries, and of their being invented to perpetuate the doctrine of a suture state, that this doctrine continued to be taught even in the most debauched celebrations of the Mysteries of Cupid \* and Bacchus +. Nay, even that very flagitious part of the mysterious rites when at worst, the carrying the KTEIE and ΦΑΛΛΟΣ in procession, was introduced but under pretence of their being emblems ‡ of the mystical regeneration and new life, into which the Initiated had engaged themselves to enter.

3, The last cause to which one may ascribe their corruption, was the Hierophant's withdrawing the Mysteries from the care and inspection of the civil Magistrate; whose original Institution they were: and, therefore, in the purer ages of Greece, the deputies of

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;Αγαθίο μέν, δ΄ ίταϊρι, τὰς ἐν 'Ελιυσῖοι τιλιῖὰς μέλασχεῖο, ἐγὸ δί ἐςῦ τοῖς ΕΡΩΤΟΣ ἐςδακαῖς κỳ μόταις ἐν ἄθυ βιλίωνα μοῆραν ἔσαν. Plutarchus 'Εςωδιαῦ.

<sup>†</sup> Κίλο - οιιλαί γι ἐπὶ θάμδιι το ἐλοδο ταῦθ ὑμᾶς τοιιλ, ἐχὶ ἢι τάληθὰ τιςὶ κολάστου λέγοθα; ἀναγιαίου τος ὑμαρβικότι διόπις ἰξομοῖοι ὑμᾶς τοῖς ἐι ταῖς ΒΑΚΧΙΚΑΙΣ τιλιλαῖς τὰ φάσμαθα κριλιμοία προιοπόγοσι. Orig. contra Celíum, lib. iv. p. 167. Sp.

I Kui yay ai tehilai, uj tù işlia, tà tùtur elzer AINIFMATA. tùr alia mir à Exeucic, à Çahλαίσγία δι τὸ Φαλλό. Theodoret, Therapeut. lib. i. Here the father uses the word abilipals ironically, and in derision of the Pagans, who pretended, that these procesfions were mystical, fymbolical, and enigmatical; otherwise he had used the word improperly; for the aloi, and falli, could never be the airinguals of the pollutions committed by them: and ignifying the obscure imitation of a thing represented by a different image.—So Tertullian against the Valentinians says, 46 Virile membrum totum ់ effe សមុនកុខសហស." Jamblichus gives another reason for these things: 🚵 រចិក ែ ក៖ κυμοδία κὲ τραφόλα ἀλλότεια σάθη θιυρύθες, ἵςκμιι τὰ οἰκιῖα σάθη, κὲ μεθριώτερα ἀσκεβαζόμιθα, κὲ άποιαθαίρομεν Το τε τοῖς Ειροῖς, θιάμασί τισι κὴ ἀκύσμασι τῶν αἰσχρῶν, ἀπολυύμεθα τῆς ἐπὶ τῶι ង្គសែរ នំងាំ នប់ការិភ ចប្រការនៅរត់ចម្អ βλάδες. De mysteriis, § i. cap. 11. However, in common life, figuram pudendi wirilis ad fascini omne genus expugnandum multunı walere crederent. A supersition, which, without doubt, at ofe from its enigmatic station in the mysteries; and to this day keeps its hold amongst the common people in Italy,-On les portoit comme des préservatifs contre les charmes, les mauvais regards & les enchantements.-Cette practique superstitieuse ne s'en est pas moins conservée jusqu'à present dans le bas Peuple du Royaume de Naples. L'on m'a fait voir plusieurs de ces Priapes, que des gens ont la simplicité de porter au bras ou sur la poitrine. Winkelman sur les decouvertes d'Herculaneum, p. 41.

the States prefided in them: and, fo long, they were fafe from notorious abuses. But in after-times it would happen, that a little priest, who had borne an inferior share in these rites, would leave his fociety and country, and fet up for himfelf; and in a clandeftine manner, without the allowance or knowledge of the Magistrate, institute and celebrate the Mysteries in private Conventicles. From rites so managed, it is easy to believe, many enormities would arise. This was the original of those horrid impieties committed in the Mysleries of Bacchus at Rome; of which the historian Livy has given so circumstantial an account: for, in the beginning of his flory, he tells us, the milchief was occasioned by one of these priests bringing the Mysteries into Etruria, on his own head, uncommissioned by his superiors in Greece, from whom he learnt them; and unauthorized by the State, into which he had introduced them. The words of Livy shew that the Mysteries were, in their own nature, a very different affair; and invented for the improvement of Knowledge and Virtue. "A Greek of mean ex-" traction (fays he \*) a little priest and soothsayer, came first into "Etruria, WITHOUT ANY SKILL OR WISDOM IN MYSTERIOUS "RITES, MANY SORTS OF WHICH, THAT MOST 46 PEOPLE HAVE BROUGHT IN AMONGST US, FOR THE CULTURE " AND PERFECTION BOTH OF MIND AND BODY +." It is farther observable, that this priest brought the Mysleries pure with him out of Greece, and that they received their corruption in Italy; for, as Hispala tells the story to the Consul, at first women only celebrated the Rites; till Paculla Minia Campana became priestes; who, on a fudden, as by order of the Gods, made a total altera-

<sup>\*</sup> Græcus ignobilis in Etruriam primum venit, nulla cum arte earum, quas multas ad animorum corforumque cultum nobis eruditissima omnium gens invexit, fed facrificulus & vates. Hist. lib xxxix.

<sup>†</sup> What Livy means by the culture of the body, will be seen hereafter, when we come to speak of the probationary and toilsome trials undergone by those aspirants to the Mysteries, called the SOLDIERS OF MITHRAS.

tion in the Ceremonies, and initiated her sons; which gave occafion to all the debaucheries that followed \*. The consequence of this discovery was the abolition of the Rites of Bacebus throughout Italy, by a decree of the Senate +.

However, it is very true, that in Greece itself the Myseries became abominably abused ‡: a proof of which we have even in the conduct of their Comic writers, who frequently lay the action of the Drama (such as the rape of a young girl, and the like) at the celebration of a religious Mystery; and from that Mystery denominate the Piece §. So that, in the time of Ciccro, the terms mysteries and abominations were almost synonymous. The Academic having said they had secrets and Mysteries, Lucullus replies, "Quæ sunt tandem ista mysteria? aut cur celatis, quasi turpe "aliquid, vestram sententiam ||?" However, in spite of all occasions and opportunities, some of these Mysteries, as the Eleusinian particularly, continued for many ages pure and undefiled. The

<sup>\*</sup> Hispala's consession will fully instruct the reader in the nature and degree of these corruptions.—" Tum Hispala originem sacrorum expromit. Primo sacrarium id socratium id socratium fuisse, nec quemquam virum eo admitti solitum.—Pacullam sacrdotem omnia, tanquam Deum monitis, immutasse: nam & viros eam primam suos silios initiasse: & nocturnum sacrum ex diurno, & pro tribus in anno diebus quinos singulis mensibus dies initiorum secisse. Ex quo in promiscuo sacra sint, & permisti viri soci minis, & noctis licentia accesserit; nihil ibi sacinoris, nihil sagitii prætermissum; plura virorum inter sese, quam soci similarum esse suprima simila nesa ducere. Hanc coris sint, & pigriores ad facinus, pro victimis immolari: nihil nesa ducere. Hanc summam inter cos religionem esse; viros velut mente capta cum jactatione fanatica corporis vaticinari—Raptos a Diis homines dici, quos machinæ illigatos ex consisse sut suprima pati noluerint Multitudinem ingentem, alterum jam prope populum esse: aut stuprum pati noluerint Multitudinem ingentem, alterum jam prope populum esse: in his nobiles quosdam viros, soci minasque. Biennio proximo institutum esse, ne quis major vigiati annis initiaretur; captari ætatis & erroris & stupri patientes."

<sup>+</sup> See note N, at the end of this Book.

<sup>‡</sup> See Clemens Alexandrinus, in his Admonitio ad Gentes.

<sup>§</sup> See Fabricius's Notitia comicorum deperditorum, in his first volume of the Bibl. Græc. lib. ii. cap. 22.

<sup>#</sup> Acad. Quæst. lib. i.

two capital corruptions of the Mysteries were MAGIC and IMPURITIES. Yet, so late as the age of Apollonius Tyan; the Eleusinian kept so clear of the first imputation, that the hierophant resused to initiate that impostor, because he was suspected to be a Magician \*. And, indeed, their long-continued immunity, both from one and the other corruption, will not appear extraordinary, if we consider, that, by a law of Solon, the senate was always to meet the day after the celebration of these Mysteries, to see that nothing had been done amiss during the performance +. So that these were the very last that submitted to the common sate of all human institutions ‡.

It is true, if uncertain report were to be believed, the Mysteries were corrupted very early: for Orpheus himself is said to have abused them §. But this was a sigment which the debauched Myster of later times invented to varnish over their enormities; as the detestable Pæderasts of after-ages scandalized the blameless Socrates. Besides, the story is so ill laid, that it is detected by the surest records of Antiquity: for, in consequence of the crime which they sabled Orpheus committed in the Mysteries, they pretended, that he was torn in pieces by the women: whereas it appeared from the inscription on his monument at Dium in Macedonia, that he was struck dead with lightning, the envied death of the reputed savourites of the Gods ||.

And here the christian FATHERS will hardly escape the censure of those who will not allow high provocation to be an excuse for an unfair representation of an adversary. I say, they will hardly

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;O d' 'Leopáilus હોય દિવંતીલ જાણાંદ્રામ રહે દાંદુહે, μે γહેદુ હૈંગ જાહિ μυήσαι γόνία, μે છે રહે 'Ελιυσίία ἀκίξαι ἀνθρίτο μે καθαρή τὰ δαιμόνα. Philost. lib. iv. cap. 18.

<sup>†</sup> ή γας βυλή ἐπεῖ καθιδείσθαι ἔμιλλο, κατά τὸν ΣόλωνΟ νόμον, ΰς κιλιών, τῆ ὑρεκαία, τῶν μυρεκίων ἔλραν ανοιεί ἐν τῷ Ἐλιυσινίφ. Andoc. Orat.

I See note O, at the end of this Book.

<sup>§</sup> See Diog. Laert. Proæmium, Segm. 5.

<sup>1</sup> Idem, ibid.

escape censure, for accustoming themselves to speak of the Mysteries as gross impieties and immoralities in their very original \*. Clemens Alexandrinus, in a heat of zeal, breaks out, "Let him " be accurfed, who first infected the world with these impostures, "whether it was Dardanus-or-&c. These I make no scruple to " call wicked authors of impious fables; the fathers of an exe-" crable fuperstition, who, by this Institution, sowed in human " life the feeds of vice and corruption+." But the wifest and best of the pagan world invariably hold, that the Mysteries were instituted rure; and proposed the noblest end, by the worthiest means. And even though the express testimony of these writers, supported by the reason of the thing, should be deemed insufficient, yet the character and quality of their Institutor must put the matter out of all doubt. This Institutor, as will be seen presently, was no other than the Lawgiver, or CIVIL MAGISTRATE himself. Wherever the Mysteries found public admittance, it was by his introduction; and as oft as ever they were celebrated, it was under his inspection. Now virtue is as essential to the preservation, and vice to the destruction of that Society, over which he presides, as obedience and disobedience are to his office and authority. So that to conceive him disposed to bring in, and to encourage, immoral practices under the mask of Religion, is the same thing as to suspect the Physician of mixing Poisons with his antidotes.

The truth of the matter was this: the Fathers bore a secret grudge to the Mysteries for their injurious treatment of Christianity on its first appearance in the world. We are to observe, that ATHEISM, by which was meant a contempt of the Gods, was reckoned, in the Mysteries, amongst the greatest crimes. So, in the sixth book of the Æneis (of which more hereafter) the hottest

<sup>•</sup> See note P, at the end of this book.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Ολλοίο δε ε τοσλι άξξας ἀπάτας ἀιθρώποις" είτε ε Δάςλαι — είτε — τέτες ἐγώγ ὰι ἀρχικακὸς φόσαιμε μέθοι ἀθέων, κὴ διοτδαιμοτίας ὁλιθρία παθέρας, σπέρμα κακίας κὴ ψεφᾶς ἐγκαθαψιδιώσαιθας τῷ βίψ τα μυτάρια. Admonitio ad Gentes, pag. 8. A. B. Edit. Sylburg.

feats in Tartarus are allotted to the Atheist, such as Salmoneus, Tityus, and the Titans, &c. Now the Christians, for their contempt of the national Gods, were, on their first appearance, deemed Atheists by the people; and so branded by the Mystagogue, as we find in Lucian \*, and exposed amongst the rest in Tartarus, in their folernn shews and representations. This may be gathered from a remarkable passage in Origen, where Celsus thus addresses his adversary: "But now, as you, good man, believe eternal punish-"ments, even so do the interpreters of these holy Mysteries, the "Hierophants and Initiators; you threaten others with these pu-" nishments: THESE, on the contrary, THREATEN YOU +." This explains a passage in Jerom's catalogue of ccclesiastical writers; and will be explained by it. The Father, speaking of Quadratus, says; " Cumque Hadrianus Athenis exegisset hiemem invisens Eleusinem, « & omnibus pene Græciæ facris initiatus, dedisset occasionem iis, " qui Christianos oderunt, absque præcepto Imperatoris vexare cre-"dentes, porrexit ei librum pro religione nostra." Now what occasion was afforded at this juncture to the enemies of Christianity, but only this, That, the Grecian Mysteries representing the Faithful in an odious light, the Emperor (who but just then had been initiated into almost all of them) might be reasonably thought estranged and indisposed towards Christianity; and so the easier drawn to countenance, or connive at, any injustice done unto it?

This, without doubt, was what sharpened the Fathers against the Mysteries; and they were not over tender in loading what they did not approve. On this account they gave easy credit to what had been told to them of the abominations in the Mysteries; and the rather, perhaps, on account of the secrecy with which they

<sup>\*</sup> Kai is μis τη σχώτη [τῆ; τελίῆς ἡμίζη] αρίβρους ἦτ, ὕστιρ 'Αθήτησι, τοιαύτη' εἴ τις ἄθιΦ, ἡ ΧΡΙΣΤΙΑΝΟΣ, ἡ ΕτειτήτιΦ, ἡτει καιάσποτΦ τῶν ἐργίεν φιυγέτω—Pfeudomantis, T. II. pag. 244. Edit. Reitzii, 4to. Amstel. 1743.

<sup>†</sup> Μάλιςα μέν, δ βέλλιςε, όντειρ σὰ πελάσεις αἰωνίας νομίζεις άνω κὸ οἱ τῶν ἰςῶν ἰπένων ἰξηδεναλ νελεςαί το κὸ μυγαθογοί: αξ σὰ μέν τοῦς ἄλλοις ἀπτελείζε, ἐκείδοι δὸ σοί. lib. viii.

were celebrated. The same Secrecy in the Christian Rites, and the same language introduced by the Fathers in speaking of them, as we see below, procured as easy credit to those calumnies of murder and incest charged upon them by the Pagans. Nay, what is still more remarkable, those specific enormities, in which their own Mysteries were known to offend, they objected to the Christians. 44 Alii eos [Christianos] ferunt ipsius Antistitis ac Sacerdotis colere " genitalia "." But here comes in the strange part of the story; that, after this, they should so studiously and formally transfer the terms, phrases, rites, ceremonies, and discipline of these odicus Mysleries into our holy Religion; and, thereby, very early vitiate and deprave, what a pagan writer + could fee, and acknowledge, to be ABSOLUTA & SIMPLEX, as it came out of the hands of its, Author. Sure then it was some more than ordinary veneration the People had for these Musteries, that could incline the Fathers of the Church to so fatal a counsel: however, the thing is notorious t, and the effects have been severely felt.

We have all along supposed the Mysteries an invention of the Lawgiver: and, indeed, we had nothing to do with them, but in that view. Now though, from what hath been said, the intelligent reader will collect, we have not supposed amis, yet since the pertinency of the whole discourse, as here applied, depends upon it, he may perhaps expect us to be a little more particular.

That the Mysteries were invented, established, and supported by LAWGIVERS, may be seen,

1. From the place of their original; which was EGYPT. This,. Herodotus, Diodorus, and Plutarch, who collect from ancient teftimonies, expressly affirm; and in this all Antiquity concurs: the Eleusinian Mysteries, particularly, retaining the very Egyptian Gods, in whose honour they were celebrated; Ceres and Triptolemus

<sup>·</sup> Cacil. apud Minut. in Octav.

<sup>+</sup> Amm. Marcellinus, lib. xxi. cap. 16. Hist.

<sup>‡</sup> See note Q, at the end of this Book.

being only two other names for Isis \* and Osiris: as we have seen above from Theodoret: and so Tibullus.—

Primus aratra manu sollerti secit Osiris, Et teneram serro sollicitavit humum +.

Hence it is, that the UNIVERSAL NATURE, or the fufl Caufe, the object of all the Mysteries, yet disguised under diverse NAMES, speaking of herself in Apuleius, concludes the enumeration of her various mystic rites, in these words,—" Priscaque doctrina pollentes "ÆGYPTII, CEREMONIIS me prorsus PROPRIIS I percolentes, " appellant VERO NOMINE reginam ISIDEM §."

But the similitude between the Rites practised, and the Doctrines taught in the Grecian and Egyptian Mysteries, would be alone sufficient to point up to their original: such as the secrecy required of the Initiated; which, as we shall see hereafter, peculiarly characterized the Egyptian teaching; such as the doctrines taught of a metempsychosis, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which the Greek writers agree to have been first set abroach by the Egyptians; such as abstinence enjoined from domestic sowl, sish, and beans \*\*, the peculiar superstition of the Egyptians; such as the Ritual composed in bieroglyphics, an invention of the Egyptians ++.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Ίσις κ΄ ici nalà τὰν Ελλένων γλώσσαν Δημάτης. Herodot, lib, ii, cap. 59. And again cap. 156. Δημέτης δι Ίσις.

<sup>+</sup> See note R, at the end of this B.ok.

I See note S, at the end of this Book.

<sup>§</sup> Metam. lib, xi.

H Timzus the Locrian, in his book Of the foul of the world, speaking of the necessity of inculcating the doctrine of future punishments, calls them TIMOPIAI ZENAI, FORZION TORMENTS: by which name both Latin and Greek writers generally mean, Egyptian, where the subject is Religion.

<sup>\*\*</sup> See Porphyrius De Abstin.

<sup>††</sup> Senex comissimus ducit me protinus ad ipsas fores ædis amplissimæ, rituque solenni aspersionis celebrato mysterio, ac matutino peracto sacrissico, de opertis adyti profert quosdam libros, literis ignorabilibus prænotatos; partim FIGURIS CUJUSCEMODI ANIMALIUM,

But it would be endless to reckon up all the particulars in which the Egyptian and Grecian Mysteries agreed: it shall sussice to say, that they were in all things the same \*.

Again; nothing but the supposition of this common original to all the Grecian Mysteries can clear up and reconcile the disputes which arose amongst the Grecian States and Cities, concerning the original of these rites; every one claiming to be the Prototype to the rest. Thus Thrace pretended that they came first from thence; Crete contested the honour with those barbarians; and Athens claimed it from both. And at that time, when they had forgotten the true original, it was impossible to settle and adjust their disferences: for each could prove that he did not borrow from others; and, at the same time, seeing a similitude in the Rites; would conclude that they had borrowed from him. But the owning EGYPT for their common Parent, clears up all difficulties: by accounting for that general likeness which gave birth to every one's pretensions.

Now, in Egypt, all religious Worship being planned and established by Statetinen, and directed to the ends of civil policy, we must conclude, that the Mysteries were originally invented by LEGISLATORS.

2. The Sages who brought them out of Egypt, and propagated them in Asia, in Greece, and Britain, were all Kings or Lawgivers; such as Zoroaster, Inachus, Orpheus ‡, Melampus, Trophonius, Minos, Cinyras, Erectheus, and the Druids.

ANIMALIUM, CONCEPTI SERMONIS COMPENDIOSA VERBA SUGGERENTES, partim nodofis, & in modum rotæ tortuofis, capreolatimque condensis apicibus. Apul. Metam. lib. xi.

<sup>•</sup> Прос के पर्धानाद का पात्रिकों में पर्ध मधार्षमाय पर्धापाद पर्वेद शिष्ठ [ तर्वमादिक] पर्वार मधीलें मुनियान के 'Exercit, पर्व पर काढ़ी पर्वेद विश्वान में पर्वेद केंद्रवार्वणीय केंद्र

<sup>† —</sup> Καὶ τὰ ἰιςὰ τρόποι τιιὰ κοιοποιείσθαι ταῦτά τι, κὰ τῶν Σαμεθερένωι, κὰ τὰ ἐι Λόμιφ, κὰ ἄλλα πλιίω διὰ τὸ τὰς σεροπέλες λέγισθαι τὰς αὐτάς. Strabo, lib. x. p. 466. D. Edit. Parif. 1620. fol.

<sup>‡</sup> Of whom Aristophanes says, 'Ορφιὸς μὸ γὰς τελίλὰς 9' ἡμὸ καθάλιξε, φέτου τ' ἀπέχεσθαι"Orpheus taught us the Mysteries, and to abstain from murder," i. c. from a life of rapine and violence, such as men lived in the flate of nature.

3. They were under the superintendence of the State. A Magistrate intitled BADIAETD, or King, presided in the Eleusinian Mysteries. Lysias informs us, that this King was to offer up the public prayers, according to their country Rites; and to fee that nothing impious or immoral crept into the celebration \*. This title given to the President of the Mysteries, was, doubtless, in memory of the first Founder: to whom were joined four officers, chosen by the people, called EPIMEAHTAI or Curators+; the priests were only under-officers to these, and had no share in the direction: for this being the Legislator's favourite institution, he took all possible care for its support; which could not be done more effectually, than by his watching over it himself. On the other hand, his interfering too openly in religious matters would have defeated his end; and the people would foon have come to regard this high folemnity as a mere engine of State; on which account he carefully kept behind the curtain. For though it be now apparent that the Mysteries were the invention of the Civil Magistrate, yet even some Ancients, who have mentioned the Mysteries, seemed not to be apprized of it; and their ignorance hath occasioned great embroilment in all they fay on this subject. The reader may see by the second chapter of Meursius's Eleusinia, how much the Ancients were at a loss for the true founder of those Mysteries; some giving the institution to Ceres; some to Triptolemus; others to Eumolpus; others to Musæus; and some again to Erectheus. How then shall we disengage ourselves from this labyrinth, into which Meursius hath led us, and in which, his guard of Ancients keep us inclosed? This clue will easily conduct us through it. It appears, from what has been faid, that Erectheus, KING of Athens, established the Mysteries 1; but that the people unluckily confounded

<sup>\* -</sup> Kai suzas subilm nalā tā mātpa - suns as punkis, adaņ, punk anteņ meļ tā iedin Andoc.

<sup>+</sup> See Meursius's Eleusinia, cap. xv.

<sup>‡</sup> And fo fays Diodorus Siculus, lib. i. Bibl.

the Institutor, with the PRIESTS, Eumolpus and Museus, who first officiated in the rites; and with Ceres and Triptolemus, the DELTIES, in whose honour they were celebrated. And these mistakes were natural enough \*: the poets would be apt, in the licence of their figurative style, to call the Gods, in whose name the Mysteries were performed, the Founders of those Mysteries; and the people, seeing only the ministry of the officiated priests (the Legislator keeping out of sight) in good earnest believed those Mystagogues to be the sounders. And yet, if it were reasonable to expect from Poets or People, attention to their own fancies and opinions, one would think they might have distinguished better, by the help of that mark, which Erectheus lest behind him, to ascertain his title; namely, the erection of the officer called  $\beta \alpha \sigma_i \lambda \epsilon t_s^i$ , or King.

4. But this original is still further seen from the qualities required in the aspirants to the Mysteries. According to their original institution, neither staves nor foreigners were to be admitted into them +. Now if the Mysteries were instituted, primarily for the sake of teaching religious truths, there can be no reason given why every man, with the proper moral qualifications, should not be admitted: but supposing them instituted by the State for civil purposes, a very good one may be assigned; for slaves and foreigners have there, neither property nor country. When afterwards the Greeks, by frequent confederations against the Persian, the common enemy of their liberties, began to consider themselves as one people

صنح حن كا شعران يا هوشتا زده مكن ΔΟΥΛΟΙΣ γάς غد اؤدها شدفنه عنه كنوسه.

<sup>\*</sup>They were committed where no Mystery was affected, in what concerned the open worship of their Gods. Tacitus, speaking of the Temple of the Paphian Venus, says, "Conditorem Templi Regem Aërian vetus memoria, quidam ipsius Dem nomen id per-thibent." Hist. lib. ii.

<sup>† —</sup> π΄λθι [ˈHeanlūs] στὸς Εὐμολτον εἰς Ἑλευσίτα, βυλόμει μυπθύται τι Ν ἐπ ἰξὸι ΜΕΝΟΙΣ τότε μυτίσθαι—Schol. Hom. Il. Θ. It was the fame in the Cabiric Mysteries, as we learn from Diodorus Siculus, lib. v. who speaks of the like innovation made there.—λαιί λ εὐτος στὸι κατικορλομος. Ας to flaves, hear Aristophanes in his Θεσμοφόριας.

and Community, the Mysleries were extended to all who spoke the GREEK LANGUAGE. Yet the Aucients, not reslecting on the original and end of their institution, were much perplexed for the reasons of an exclusion so apparently capricious. Lucian tells us, in The life of his friend Demonax, that this great philosopher had the courage, one day, to ask the Athenians, why they excluded barbarians from their Mysteries, when Eumolpus, a barbarous Thracian, had established them \*. But he does not tell us their answer. One of the most judicious of our modern critics was as much at a loss; and therefore thinks the restraint ridiculous, as implying, that the Institutors supposed that speaking the Greek tongue contributed to the advancement of piety +.

5. Another proof of this original may be deduced from what was taught promiscuously to all the Initiated; which was, the necessity of a virtuous and boly life, to obtain a bappy immortality. Now this, we know, could not come from the sacerdotal warehouse: the priests could afford a better penny-worth of their Elysium, at the easy expence of oblations and sacrifices: for, as our great Philosopher well observes (who, however, was not aware of this extraordinary institution for the support of virtue, and therefore concludes too generally) "The Priests made it not their business to teach the people virtue: if they were diligent in their observations and ceremonies, punctual in their feasts and solemnities, and the tricks of religion, the holy tribe assured them that the Gods were

<sup>&</sup>quot; Ἐτίλμου δί ωδι κ) 'Αθναίως ἐριθύσαι δημοσία, τῶς ως εξήσοιως ἀπόσας, λὰ τίνα αίτίαι ἀποκλιίωσι τὰς βας Εάρως' κ) ταῦτα τῷ τὰν τελίθι αὐτοῖς καθας πταμίνω Εὐμόλτω, βας Εάρως ή Θραιός ἔνθο. But the fact, that they were not a grecian but a foreign, that is, barbarous invention, is proved by their very name, μυτάχια, from the eastern dialect, mistor, or mistur, res aut locus absconditus.

<sup>+</sup> Auctor cst Libanius in Corinthiorum actione, mystagogos summa diligentia initiandos ante omnia monuisse, ut manus puras animumque sibi servarent purum: के के किन्ने किन

<sup>&</sup>quot; pleased,

"pleased, and they looked no further: sew went to the schools of Philosophers, to be instructed in their duty, and to know what was good and evil in their actions: the Priests sold the better penny-worths, and therefore had all the custom: for lustrations and sacrifices were much easier than a clean conscience and a steddy course of virtue; and an expiatory facrifice, that atoned for the want of it, much more convenient than a strict and holy life." Now we may be assured, that an Institution, which taught the necessity of a strict and holy life, could not but be the invention of Lawgivers, to whose schemes moral virtue was so necessary.

6. Another strong presumption of this original is the great use of the Mysteries to the State: so amply confessed by the wisest writers of antiquity, and so clearly seen from the nature of the thing itself.

7. But, lastly, we have the testimony of the knowing Plutarch for this original; who, in his treatise Of Isis and Osiris, expressly tells us, that it was "a most ancient opinion, delivered down, "from LEGISLATORS and Divines, to Poets and Philosophers, the author of it entirely unknown, but the belief of it indelibly established, not only in tradition, and the talk of the vulgar, but in the MYSTERIES and in the sacred offices of religion, both amongst Greeks and Barbarians, spread all over the face of the globe, "That the Universe was not upheld fortuitously, without Mind, "Reason, or a Governor to preside over its revolutions+."

It is now submitted to the candid reader, Whether it be not fairly proved, that the MYSTERIES were invented by the LEGIS-LATOR, to affirm and establish the general doctrine of a Providence, by

<sup>\*</sup> Locke's Reasonableness of Christianity.

<sup>†</sup> Διὸ τὰ σαμπάλαι το αίτα πάτειστι ἐκ θιολές το τὰ ΝΟΜΟΘΕΤΩΝ είς το σουθές τὰ φιλοσόρυς δέξα, τὰν ἀρχὰν ἀδίστολοι ἴχυσα, τὰν δι σίτιν ἰσχυρὰν τὰ δυσεξάλειστλο, ἐκ ἐι λόγως μόνοι, ἐδὶ ἐι φέμαις, ἀλλὰ ἔν το ΤΕΛΕΤΑΙΣ, ἔν το θυσίαις, τὰ βαξάξως τὰ "Ελλασι συλλαχῦ συμφερμένη, ἐς ὕτ" ἄνω τὰ ἀλοδοι τὰ ἀπυδέρυδον αἰωρεῖται τῷ αὐτυμάτψ τὸ σᾶν.—— Edit. Francof. fol. T. II. p. 369. B.

incul ating the belief of a future flate of rewards and punishments. Indeed, if we may believe a certain Ancient, who appears to have been well versed in these matters, they gained their end, by clearing up all doubts concerning the righteous government of the Gods \*.

We have feen in general, how fond and tenacious ancient Paganism was of this extraordinary Rite, as of an Institution supremely useful both to society and religion. But this will be seen more fully in what I now proceed to lay before the Public; an examination of two celebrated pieces of Autiquity, the famous Sihth book of Virgil's Æneis, and the Metamorphosis of Apuleius: The first of which will shew us of what use the Mysteries were esteemed to society; and the second, of what support to religion.

An inquiry into Æneas's adventure to the Shades, will have this farther advantage, the instructing us in the shews and representations of the MYSTERIES; a part of their history, which the form of this discourse hath not yet afforded us an opportunity of giving. So that nothing will be now wanting to a perfect knowledge of this most extraordinary and important Institution.

For, the descent of Virgil's Hero into the infernal regions, I prefume, was no other than a figurative description of an INITIATION; and particularly, a very exact picture of the SPECTACLES in the ELEUSINIAN MYSTERIES; where every thing was done in shew and machinery; and where a representation + of the history of Ceres afforded opportunity of bringing in the scenes of heaven, hell, elysium, purgatory, and whatever related to the suture state of men and heroes.

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;O & reis pursueis iyungligison mapalyapunon inopulsus, uj med rut radlug ni rug undi kurdaipun yeshpud- med udurde tre rur med rug dubt iyun desounun appisodon. Sopater in Divis.
Qualt.

<sup>† —</sup> ἀλλ' ὁ μὸι Πλεθιὸς τὰν Κόςτι ἄρταστ: τὰ ὁ Δύμεθρα ἀλυμένο κατὰ τὰς ἰχύμες τὸ τέκτοι ἰζύτοι.

αὰ τῶτοι τὸι μέθοι εἰς ῦψΦ ἄγαιο τὸ ἐι Ἐλουσῖι αῦς. Juft, Mart. Orat. ad Græc. prope init.
Δαὰ ᾶιὰ Κόςτι δρᾶμα ἄδε ἰγιείσθει μυγικόι τὰ τὰν αλάπε, τὰ τὰν ἀςκαγὰι, τὰ τὰ αίεθΦ αὐταῦι Ἐλευρὸς ἐρδεχεῖ. Clemens Alex. in Protreptico, p. 7. E. Edit. Sylburgh.

But to fosten this paradox all we can, it may be proper to enquire into the nature of the *Eneis*.

Homer's two poems had each a plain and entire story, to convey as plain and simple a moral: and in this, he is justly esteemed excellent. The Roman poet could make no improvements here: the Greek was complete and perfect; so that the patrons of Virgil, even Scaliger himself, are forced to seek for his superior advantages in his episodes, descriptions, similies, and in the chastity and correctness of his thoughts and diction. In the mean time they have all overlooked the principal advantage he had over his great Exemplar.

Virgil found the epic poem in the first rank of human compofitions; but this was too narrow a circuit for his enlarged ambition: he was not content that its subject should be to instruct the world in MORALS; much less did he think of PHYSICS, though he was fond of natural enquiries, and Homer's Allegorizers had opened a back-door to let in the Philosopher with the Poet; but he aspired to make it a system of politics. On this plan he wrote the Æneis; which is, indeed, as compleat an Institute in verse, by EXAMPLE, as the Republics of Plato and Tully were in prose by PRECEPT. Thus he enlarged the bounds, and added a new province to epic poesy. But though every one saw that Augustus was shadowed in the person of ÆNEAS, yet it being supposed that those political instructions, which the poet designed for the service of mankind, were folely for the use of his Master, they missed of the true nature of the poem. And in this ignorance, the succeeding epic writers, following a work whose genius they did not understand, wrote worse than if they had only taken Homer, and his fimpler plan, for their direction. A great modern Poet, and best judge of their merit, assures us of this fact; and what has been faid will help us to explain the reason of it: "The other epic poets " (says this admirable writer) have used the same practice [that of "Virgil, of running two fables into one] but generally carry it

"fo far, as to superinduce a multiplicity of fables, destroy the unity of action, and lose their readers in an unreasonable length of time \*."

Such was the revolution Virgil brought about in this noblest region of poefy; an improvement so great, that the truest poet had need of all the assistance the sublimest genius could lend him: nothing less than the joint aid of the Iliad and Odysses being able to surnish out the execution of his great idea: for a system of Politics delivered in the example of a great Prince, must shew him in every public adventure of life. Hence Æneas was, of necessity, to be found voyaging, with Ulysses, and sighting, with Achilles.

But if the improved nature of his subject compelled him to depart from that simplicity in the sable, which Aristotle, and his best interpreter, Bossu, find so divine in Homer +; he gained considerable advantages by it in other circumstances of the composition: for now, those ornaments and decorations, for whose insertion the critics could give no other reason than to raise the dignity of the Poem, become essential to the Subject. Thus the choice of Princes and Heroes for his personages, which were, before, only used to grace the scene, now constitute the nature of the action ‡: and the machinery of the Gods, and their intervention on every occasion, which was to create the MARVELLOUS, becomes, in this improvement, an indispensable part of the poem. A divine interprss-

<sup>\*</sup> Preface to the Iliad of Homer.

<sup>†</sup> Nous trouverons point, dans la fable de l'Eneide, cette simplicité qu'Aristote a trouvée si divine dans Homére. Traité du poeme epique, lib. i. cap. xi.

<sup>† — &</sup>quot;Le retour (says Bossu) d'un homme en sa maison, & la querelle de deux au"tres, n'ayant rien de grand en soi, deviennent des actions illustres & importantes,
"lorsque dans le choix des noms, le poete dit que c'est l'Ulysse qui retourne en Itha"que, & que c'est Achille & Agamemnon qui querellent." — He goes on, "Mais il y
"a des actions qui d'elles mêmes sont très importantes, comme l'establissement, en la ruine
"a d'un etat, en d'une religion. Telle est donc l'action de l'Eneide." lib. ii. cap. 19. He
saw here a remarkable difference in the subjects; it is strange this should not have led
him to see that the Æneis is of a different species.

tion is in the very spirit of ancient legislation; where, we see, the principal care of the Lawgiver was to posses the people with the full belief of an over-ruling Providence. This is the true reason of so much machinery in the Æneis: for which, modern critics impeach the author's judgment, who, in a poem written in the refined and enlightened age of Rome \*, followed the marvellous of Homer so closely. An excellent writer, speaking of Virgil in this view, says, "If there be any instance in the Æneid liable to exception upon this account, it is in the beginning of the third book, where Æneas is represented as tearing up the myrtle that dropped blood. "This circumstance seems to have the marvellous without the pro- bable, because it is represented as proceeding from natural causes without the interposition of any God, or rather, supernatural power capable of producing it +." But surely this instance was ill chosen. The poet makes Æneas say, on this occasion,

Nymphas venerabar agrestes, Gradivumque patrem, Geticis qui præsidet arvis, Rite secundarent visus omenque levarent ‡.

Now omens were of two kinds §, the natural and supernatural. This in question, was of the latter fort, produced by the intervention of the Gods, as appears by his calling this adventure, MONSTRA DEUM: it was of the nature of those portentous showers of blood so frequently occurring in the Roman history. And the poet was certainly within the bounds of the probable, while he told no more than what their gravest writers did not scruple to record in their annals.

But this was not done merely to raise admiration. He is here (as we observe) in his legislative character; and writes to possess the

<sup>\*</sup> Ce qui est beau dans Homère pourroit avoir été mal reçu dans les ouvrages d'un poete du tems d'Auguste. Idem, lib. iii. cap. 8. De l'admirable.

<sup>†</sup> Mr. Addison's Works, vol. iii. p. 316. quarto edit. 1721.

<sup>1</sup> Lib. iii.

<sup>&</sup>amp; See note T, at the end of this books

people of the interpolition of the Gods, in omens and prodicies. This was the method of the old Lawgivers. So Plutarch, as quoted above, tells us, "that with divinations and omens, Lycurgus sance" tified the Lacedemonians, Numa the Romans, Ion the Athenians, and Deucalion all the Greeks in general; and by hopes and fears kept up in them the awe and reverence of Religion." The scene of this adventure is laid, with the utmost propriety, on the uncivilized inhospitable shores of Thrace, to inspire horror for barbarous manners, and an appetite for social life. On this account it is that our poet here deserts the Mythologists, and makes the age of civil policy, (the time when men were first brought out of a state of nature) the golden age, and Saturn to govern in it. Thus Evander says,

Hæc nemora indigenæ fauni nymphæque tenebant—
Queis neque mos, neque cultus erat; neque jungere tauros,
Aut componere opes norant, aut parcere parto:
Sed rami atque asper victu venatus alebat.
Primus abætherio venit Saturnus Olympo—
Is genus indocile, ac dispersum montibus altis,
Composuit, legesque dedit \*.

Whereas Ovid, who speaks the sense of the Mythologists, makes the golden age to be the slate of nature, and SATURN to govern there, before the erection of civil policy.

Aurea prima sata est ætas, quæ, vindice nullo,
Sponte sua, sine lege sidem rectumque colebat.
Poena metusque aberant: nec verba minacia fixo Ære legebantur: nec supplex turba timebant
Judicis ora sui.——
Ipsa quoque immunis rastroque intacta, nec ullis
Saucia vomeribus, per se dabat omnia tellus:
Contentique cibis nullo cogente creatis,
Arbuteos soetus, montanaque fragra legebant,

## SECT. 4. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED. 233

Cornaque & in duris hærentia mora rubetis, Et quæ deciderant patula Jovis arbore glandes.

Ver erat æternum——

Postquam SATURNO tenebrosa in Tartara misso-

Tum primum subjere domos-

Semina tum primum longis Cerealia sulcis

Obruta funt, pressique jugo gemuere juvenci \*.

For it served the grave purpose of the philosophic Poet to decry the state of nature; and it suited the fanciful paintings of the mythologic Poet to recommend it.

But every thing in this poem points to great and public ends. The turning the ships into sea-deities, in the ninth book, has the appearance of fomething infinitely more extravagant, than the myrtle dropping blood, and has been more generally and severely censured; and indeed, if defended, it must be on other principles. The philosophic commentators of Homer's poem, had brought the fantastic refinement of Allegory into great vogue. We may estimate the capacity of Virgil's judgment in not catching at fo alluring a bait, by observing that some of the greatest of the modern epic poets, who approached nearest to Virgil in genius, have been betrayed by it. Yet here and there, our poet, to convey a political precept, has employed an ingenious allegory in passing. And the adventure in question is, I think, of this number. By the transformation of the ships into sea-deities, he would infinuate, I suppose, the great advantages of cultivating a naval power; fuch as extended commerce, and the dominion of the Ocean; which, in poetical language, is becoming deities of the sea.

Mortalem eripiam formam, magnique jubebo Æquoris esse Deas——

He explains the allegory more clearly in the following book, where he makes these transformed sea-nymphs accompany Æneas, and his fleet of auxiliaries, through the Tyrrhene sea.

\* Metam. lib. i.

Atque illi medio in spatio chorus, ecce, suarum Occurrit comitum: nymphæ, quas alma Cybele. Numen habere maris, nymphasque e navibus esse Justierat——

Agnoscunt longe regem lustrantque choreïs.

This Ministerial hint was the more important and seasonable, as all Octavius's traverses, in his way to Empire, were from his want of a sufficient naval Power; first in his War with Brutus and Cassius, and afterwards with Sextus, the son of Pompey the Great. Nor was it, at this time, less flattering to Augustus; to whom the Alexandrians erected a magnificent Temple, Porticoes, and sacred Groves, where he was worshiped under the title of CÆSAR THE PROTECTOR AND PATRON OF SAILORS. So he became a Sea-God and at the head of these Goddesses. For as one of his Flatterers said,

- "Præsenti tibi MATUROS largimur honores:
- "Jurandasque TUUM PER NOMEN ponimus aras."

As the not taking the true scope of the *Eneis*, hath occasioned mistakes, to Virgil's disadvantage, concerning the plan and conduct of the poem; so hath it likewise, concerning the Characters. The PIETY of Æneas, and his high veneration for the Gods, so much offends a celebrated French writer\*, that he says, the bero was fitter to found a religion + than a monarchy. He did not know, that the image of a persect Lawgiver is held out to us in Æneas: and had he known that, he had perhaps been ignorant, that it was the office of such a one to found religions and colleges of priests;

<sup>\*</sup> Monfieur de St. Evremond.

<sup>†</sup> i. e. a community of monks.

<sup>‡ &</sup>quot;Ειθα Προμηθεύς, **"** 

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Ιαπεθιονίδης άγαθὸν τίπε Δευκαλέωνα,

<sup>°0, =</sup>p\$:• Iioihze Iioaeiz & Earimato Nhotz Abanatoiz, =v\$:• % & Anbpriirn Baziaetzen,

as well as states and corporations. And Virgil tells us this was the office of his hero,

Dum conderet URBEM, Inferretque DEOS Latio—

On the other hand Turnus, whose manners are contrasted with those of our Hero, is, on his very first appearance, marked out by his irreverence to the Priestess of Juno. But the humanity of Æneas offends this critic as well as his piety; he calls him a mere St. Swithin, always raining. The beauty of that circumstance escaped him. It was proper to represent a perfect Lawgiver as quickly touched with all the affections of humanity: and the example was the rather to be inforced, because vulgar Politicians are but too generally seen divested of these common notices; and the habit of vulgar heroism is apt to induce passions very opposite to them. Thus Virgil having painted Turnus in all the colours of Achilles, and Æneas in those of Hector (for the subject of the Iliad being the destruction of a vicious and corrupt Community, the fittest instrument was a brutal warrior, acer, iracundus, such as Achilles; and the subject of the Eneid being the erection of a great and virtuous Empire, the fittest instrument was a pious patriot, like Hector,) Turnus, I say, was to be characterised as one delighting in blood and slaughter.

Sævit amor ferri, & scelerata infania belli, Ira super \*----

And, to make this passion the more detestable, the Poet tells us it was inspired into him by a Fury. But when he represents Æneas as accepting the favourable signs from Heaven, which pushed him on to war, he draws him, agreeable to such a character, compassionating the miseries which his very enemies, by their breach of faith, were to suffer in it.

Heu, quantæ miseris cædes Laurentibus instant! Quas pænas mihi, Turne, dabis! quam multa per undas Scuta virûm, galeasque, & fortia corpera volves, Tibri pater! poscant acies, & sædera rumpant \*.

But the circumstances of his Mistress, as well as those of his Rival, are artfully contrived to set off His Piety. On excusing his departure to the enraged Queen of Carthage, as forced by the command of the Gods, she is made to answer him with this Epicurean scoff,

Scilicet is superis LABOR est, ea cura QUIETOS SOLLICITAT +----

very properly put into the mouth of a Woman immersed in voluptuous pleasures. Yet the Poet takes care to tell us, that her impiety, like Turnus's delight in blood and slaughter, was inspired by the Furies.

Heu! Furiis incensa feror-

But there is a further beauty in this circumstance of the Episode. These two Lovers are made the Founders of the two Hostile States of Rome and Carthage. So, this was to infinuate (in support of the author's main purpose) That it was want of religion which occasioned the *Punica Fides*; and the pious culture of it, which created the

Alta Moenia Romæ.

Again, the Hero was to be drawn no less master of himself, under the charms of the softer passions, than under the violence of the rougher and more horrid. M. Voltaire says,

Virgile orne mieux la raison,
A plus d'art, autant d'harmonie;
Mais il s'epuise avec Didon,
Et rate à la fin Lavinie.

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. viii. v. 537.

But this ingenious man did not consider, that the Episode of Dido and Æneas, was not given to ornament his poem with an amusing tale of a love adventure, but to expose the public mitchiefs which arise from Rulers' indulging themselves in this voluptuous weakness, while they become

Regnorum immemores, turpique cupidine captos.

The Poet therefore had defeated his own defign, if when he had recovered his Hero from this weakness, and made him say of his destined Empire in Italy,

-hic Amor, hæc Patria est-

if when he had perfected his Character, and brought him to the end of his labours, he had still drawn him struggling with this impotent and unruly passion.

Nor is the view, in which we place this poem, less serviceable to the vindication of the Poet's other characters. The learned author of the Enquiry into the life and writings of Homer, will allow me to differ from him, in thinking that those uniform manners in the Æneis, which he speaks of, was the effect of design, not, as he would have it, of custom and habit: "Virgil, says he, had seen "much of the splendor of a court, the magnificence of a palace, " and the grandeur of a royal equipage: accordingly his representa-"tions of that part of life, are more august and stately than Ho-"mer's. He has a greater regard to decency, and those polished 44 manners, that render men so much of a piece, and make them 46 all resemble one another in their conduct and behaviour \*." For the Æneis being a system of Politics, what this writer calls the eternity of a government, the form of a magistrature, and plan of dominion, must needs be familiar with the Roman poet; and nothing could be more to his purpole, than a representation of polished manners; it being the Legislator's office to tame and break men tohumanity; and to make them disguise, at least, if they cannot be brought to lay aside, their savage habits.

But this key to the Æneis not only clears up many passages obnoxious to the critics, but adds infinite beauty to a great number of incidents throughout the whole poem; of which take the following instances, the one, in *Religion*, and the other, in *civil Policy*.

1. Æneas, in the eighth book, goes to the Court of Evander, in order to engage him in a confederacy against the common enemy. He finds the king and his people busied in the celebration of an annual facrifice. The purpose of the voyage is dispatched in a few lines, and the whole episode is taken up in a matter altogether foreign to it, that is to say, the facrifice, the feast, and a long history of Hercules's adventure with Cacus. But it is done with great art and propriety; and in order to introduce, into this political poem, that samous institute of Cicero, (in his book Of Laws) designed to moderate the excess of labouring superstition, the ignotae ceremoniae, as he calls them, which at that time so much abounded in Rome—"Divos & eos, qui cœlestes semper habiti, colunto, & ollos, quos endo coelo merita vocaverint, Herculem, Liberum, Æsculapium, Castorem, Pollucem, Quirinum"—Thus copied by Virgil, in the beginning of Evander's speech to Æneas.

A lesson of great importance to the pagan Lawgiver. This Vana superstitio ignara veterum deorum was, as we have shewn, a matter he took much care to rectify in the Mysteries; not by destroying that species of idolatry, the worship of dead men, which was indeed his own invention, but by shewing wby they paid that worship; namely, for benefits done to the whole race of mankind, by those desired Heroes.

Quare agite, o juvenes! tantarum in munere laudum, &c.

The conclusion of Evander's speech,

COMMUNEMQUE VOCATE DEUM, & date vina volentes,

alludes to that other institute of Cicero, in the same book Of Laws. "SEPARATIM nemo habessit Deos: neve Novos, neve advenas, "nisi publice adscitos, PRIVATIM colunto." Of which he gives the reason in his comment, "suosque Deos, aut Novos aut Alie-"nigenas coli, confusionem habet religionum, & ignotas cere-"monias."

Nor should we omit to observe a further beauty in this episode; and, in imitation, still, of Cicero; who, in his book Of Laws, hath taken the best of the Roman Institutes for the soundation of his system: For the worship of Hercules, as introduced by Evander, and administred by the Potitis on the altar called the ARA MAXIMA, was, as Dion. Hal. and Livy tell us, the oldest establishment in Rome; and continued for many ages in high veneration, To this the following lines allude,

Hanc ARAM luco statuit, quæ MAXIMA semper, &cc.

-Jamque sacerdotes, primusque Potitius, ibant.

But Virgil was so learned in all that concerned the Roman ritual, that it was a common saying, (as we collect from Macrobius) Virgilius noster Pontisex maximus videtur: And that writer not apprehending the reason of so exact an attention to sacred things, being ignorant of the nature of the poem, says, MIRANDUM est hujus poetæ et circa nostra et circa externa sacra doctrinam \*.

2. In the ninth book we have the fine episode of Nisus and Euryalus; which presents us with many new graces, when considered (which it ought to be) as a representation of one of the most famous and singular of the Grecian Institutions. CRETE, that ancient and celebrated School of legislation, had a civil custom, which the Spartans first, and afterwards all the principal cities of Greece+,

<sup>\*</sup> Saturn. 1. iii. c. 6. † See note U, at the end of this Book.

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borrowed from them, for every man of distinguished valour or wisdom to adopt a favourite youth, for whose education he was answerable, and whose manners he had the care of forming. Hence Nisus is said to be

ACERRIMUS ARMIS,

Hyrtacides;

And Euryalus,

Comes Euryalus, quo pulchrior alter Non fuit Æneadum, Trojana neque induit arma; Ora puer prima signans intonsa juventa.

The Lovers (as they were called) and their youths always ferved and fought together;——fo Virgil of these:

His amor unus erat, pariterque in bella ruebant, Tum quoque communi portam statione tenebant.

The Lovers used to make presents to their favourite youths.—So Nisus tells his friend:

Si, TIBI, quæ Posco promittunt (nam mibi facti Fima sat est) &c.

The states of Greece, where this Institution prevailed, reaped so many advantages from it, that they gave it the greatest encouragement by their laws: so that Cicero, in his book Of a republic, observed, opprobrio suisse adolescentibus si amatores non haberent?" Virgil has been equally intent to recommend it by all the charms of poetry and eloquence. The amiable character, the affecting circumstance, the tenderness of distress, are all inimitably painted.

The youth so educated, were found to be the best bulwark of their country, and most formidable to the enemies of civil liberty. On which account, the Tyrants, wherever they prevailed, used all their arts to suppress an Institution so opposite to private interest and ambition. The annals of ancient Greece afford many examples of the bravery of these Bands, who chearfully attempted the most

hazardous

hazardous adventures \*. So that Virgil did but follow the custom of the best policied States (which it was much for his honour to do) when he put these two friends on one of the most daring actions of the whole war; as old Aletes understood it:

Dî patrii, quorum semper sub numine Troja est, Non tamen omnino Teucros delere paratis, Cum tales animos juvenum, & tam certa tulistis, Pectora.

Plutarch, speaking of the Thebans, in the Life of Pelopidas, says, that "Gorgias first enrolled the SACRED BAND, consisting of three 44 hundred chosen men; and that this corps was said to be com-" posed of LOVERS and their FRIENDS. It is reported, says he, 4 that it continued unconquered till the battle of Chæronea; and "when, after that action, Philip was surveying the dead, and came 46 to the very spot where these three hundred fell, who had charged "in close order so fatally on the Macedonian lances, and observed 46 how they lay heaped upon one another, he was amazed, and be-"ing told, that this was the band of Lovers and their Friends, he 46 burst into tears, and said, Accursed be they who can suspect that "these men either did or suffered any thing dishonest. But certainly " (continues my author) this institution of Lovers did not arise in "Thebes, as the poets feigned, from the PASSION of Laius, but "from the WISDOM of Legislators +." Such was the Friendship our poet would here represent, where he fays,

Nisus amore Pio pueri-

<sup>\*</sup> See note X, at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> Τὰν δ΄ ἰιρὰ λόχρο, ἄς φασιο, συιδιάξολο Γοργίδας σερίτος, ἐξ ἀνδρῶν ἐπιλίαθαν τριακεσίων,—διοιο λό φασιο ἐξ ἰρατῶν τὰ ἰραμείναν γενίσδαι τὰ σύστημα τῶτο.——λέγεθαι δὲ ἀμμεῖναι μέχρι τῆς ἐν Χαιραντία μάχρι ἀψελθων ὡς δὲ μεθὰ τὰν μάχνι ἰφορῶν τὰς νεικρὰς ὁ ΦίλισπΦ. ἔρα καθὰ τῶτο τὰ χαρίου, ἐν ῷ συνδιλχαιο κιῦσθαι τὰς τριακοσίας ἐιαθίας ἀπκιθαιότας ταῖς σαρίσσαις ἄπαιθας ἐν τοῖς ρειοῖς ὅπλοις, τὰ μεθὶ ἀλλάλων ἀναμεδυμένος, βαυμάσαιθα, τὰ συθέμενον ὡς ὁ τῶν ἱματῶν τὰ ἔραμένον οὖτος εῖα λόχΦ λαιρόσαι, τὰ εἰπεῖι, 'Απάλοιδο καιαῦς οἱ τύτας τι σοιιῦ ἡ πάσχιο αἰσχρὰν ὑπονοῦδος. 'Ολως δὶ τῆς σερὶ τὰς ἱριατὰς συναθείας, ἀχ ἄσπερ οἱ σοιαθαὶ λέγουν, Θυδαιίος τὸ Λαίσ σάθΦ ἀρχὰν σαρίσχει, ἀλλ' οἱ ΝΟΜΟΘΕ-ΤΑΙ. Τοπ. 1. p. 287. B. et E. Francof, Edit. fol. 1599. (Vol. II. p. 218, 219. ed. Brian.)

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and where he makes Ascanius call Euryalus,

VENERANDE puer-

The one dies in defence of the other; revenges his death; and then, falls with him, like the Lovers in the SACRED BAND:

moriens animam abstulit hosti.

Tum super exanimem sese projecit AMICUM Confosius, placidaque ibi demum morte quievit.

And here let it be observed, that, as this episode is given for a picture of this Institution in it's purity; so, in the Enemies' quarter, he hath given another drawing of it, in it's degeneracy and corruption: for the SACRED BAND, like the MYSTERIES, underwent the common sate of time and malice.

—Tu quoque flaventem prima lanugine malas Dum sequeris Clytium inselix, nova gaudia Cydon Dardania stratus dextra securus amorum Qui juvenum tibi semper erant, miserande jaceres \*

The poet hath observed the same conduct, as we shall see hereaster, with regard to the pure and the corrupt MYSTERIES.

Before I leave these previous circumstances, permit me only to take notice, that this was the second species of the EPIC POEM; our own country-man, Milton, having produced the third: for just as Virgil rivaled Homer, so Milton was the emulator of both. He sound Homer possessed of the province of MORALITY; Virgil of POLITICS: and nothing lest for him, but that of RELIGION. This he seized, as ambitious to share with them in the Government of the poetic world: and by means of the superior dignity of his subject, hath gotten to the head of that Triumvirate which took so many ages in forming. These are the three species of the Epic poem; for its largest sphere is HUMAN ACTION; which can be only considered in a moral, a political, or religious view: and these

the three great MAKERS; for each of their Poems was struck out at a heat, and came to perfection from its first essay. Here then the grand Scene was closed: and all further improvements of the Epic at an end.

It being now understood, that the Æneis is in the style of ancient legislation, it would be hard to think that so great a master in his art, should overlook a DOCTRINE, which, we have shewn, was the foundation and support of ancient Politics; namely a future state of rewards and punishments. Accordingly he hath given us a complete system of it, in imitation of his models, which were Plato's vision of Erus, and Tully's dream of Scipio. Again, as the Lawgiver took care to support this Doctrine by a very extraordinary Inflitution, and to commemorate it by a RITE, which had all the allurement of spectacle; and afforded matter for the utmost embellishments of poetry, we cannot but confess a description of such a Scene would add largely to the grace and elegance of his work; and must conclude he would be invited to attempt it. Accordingly, we fay, he hath done this likewise, in the allegorical descent of Æneas into Hell; which is no other than an enigmatical representation of his INITIATION INTO THE MYSTERIES.

Virgil was to represent an Heroic Lawgiver in the person of Æneas; now, INITIATION into the *Mysteries* was what sanctified his Character and enobled his Function. Hence we find all the ancient Heroes and Lawgivers were, in fact, initiated \*. And it was no wonder the Legislator should endeavour by his example to give credit to an institution of his own creating.

Another reason for the Hero's initiation was the important instructions the founders of Empire received in matters that concerned their office +, as we may see in the second section of the third book.

Διίξιν Τριπλολίμη τι Δώκλιι τι Πλαξίπτη
 Εὐμόλπυ τι βία, καλίη θ' ἀγάτορι λαῶν,
 Δρασμοσύναν ἰιρῶν, κὰ ἐπίθραδι ὁργία κιᾶσιν.

Homeri Fragm. Hymn. in Cer. apud Paul. Corinth.

<sup>† -</sup>γίεισθαι δέ φασι κỳ εὐσυδιτές κς κὰ δικαιδές κὰ κατὰ σάιλα βελίωνας λασίῶν τὰς τῶν μυγιτίων κοινονόσκελας δια μυγιδελαμάσθαι μελαλαδεῖν τὰς ταλείζς κỳ γὰς Ἰασίωνα κỳ Διοσκάς κς, ἔτι δ΄ Ἡξακλία κὰ Ἰοξεία μυγιδελας ἐσελοχεῖν ἐν σκόσκις ταῖς τελείζες, κὰν τὰν τὰν θεῶν τώτων ἐπιφάνικα. Diod. p. 224.

A third reason for his initiation, was their custom of seeking support and inspiration from the God who presided in the Mysteries \*.

A fourth reason for his initiation, was the circumstance in which the poet has placed him, unsettled in his affairs, and anxious about his future fortune. Now, amongst the uses of initiation, the advice and direction of the ORACLE was not the least: and an oracular bureau was so necessary an appendix to some of the Mysteries, as particularly the Samotbracian, that Plutarch, speaking of Lysander's initiation there, expresses it by a word that signifies consulting the oracle, Er de Samotbracian, xpnsnquazómero, &c. On this account, Jason, Orpheus, Hercules, Castor, and (as Macrobius says +) Tarquinius Priscus, were every one of them initiated into the Mysteries.

All this the poet seems clearly to have intimated in the speechs of Anchises to his son:

Lectos juvenes fortissima corda,
Defer in Italiam.—Gens dura atque aspera cultu
Debellanda tibi Latio est. Ditis tamen ante
INFERNAS accede DOMOS—

Tum genus omne tuum, &, quæ dentur mænia, DISCES ‡.

A fifth reason was the conforming to the old popular tradition, which said, that several other Heroes of the Trojan times, such as Agamemnon and Ulysses, had been initiated §.

A fixth and principal was, that Augustus, who was shadowed in the person of Æneas, had been initiated into the Eleusinian.

Mysteries ||.

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. ii. cap. 4.

<sup>†</sup> The rhetor Sopater, in his Diegebrus Cabulatus, makes Pericles say, Moribu vais in Educati Brait, rothe par inticulum rot vies, và ro spalbyupa rothe it analique dirat rot populatio.

<sup>‡</sup> Æn. v. ver. 729, & feq.

<sup>§ &#</sup>x27;Αγαμίμιστά φασι μιμυτιμίτου, δι ταραχή δίλα πολλή καθά Τρείαυ, λ' άκαθας ασίαυ του Ελλύνου,. παίσται του εάσιο, πορφορίδα έχοθα—'Οδισσία φασί μιμυτιμίτου δι Εαμοθρέκη χρόσασθαι το κραδίμου άδδ ταικίας. Scholia Apollon. Rhod. Arg. lib. i. ver. 916.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Open dairles

<sup>&</sup>quot;Affindos aparios redeoposinos Depisas-

<sup>&#</sup>x27;uet. Och. c. xciii. See note Y, at the end of this Book.

## SECT. 4. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED. 245

While the Mysteries were confined to Egypt, their native country, and while the Grecian Lawgivers went thither to be initiated, as a kind of defignation to their office, the ceremony would be naturally described, in terms highly allegorical. This was, in part, owing to the genius of the Egyptian manners; in part, to the humour of Travellers; but most of all, to the policy of Lawgivers; who, returning home, to civilize a barbarous people, by Laws and Arts, found it useful and necessary (in order to support their own characters, and to establish the fundamental principal of a FUTURE STATE) to reprefent that initiation, in which, was feen the condition of departed mortals in machinery, as AN ACTUAL DESCENT INTO HELL. This way of speaking was used by Orpheus, Bacchus, and others; and continued even after the Mysteries were introduced into Greece, as appears by the fables of Herculès, Castor, Pollux, and Theseus's descent into bell. But the allegory was generally so circumstanced, as to discover the truth concealed under it. So Orpheus is faid to get to hell by the power of his harp:

Threicia fretus cithara, fidibusque canoris:

that is, in quality of Lawgiver; the harp being the known fymbol. of his laws, by which he humanized a rude and barbarous people. So again, in the lives of Hercules and Bacchus, we have the true history, and the fable founded on it, blended and recorded together. For we are told, that they were in fact initiated into the Eleusinian Mysteries; and that it was just before their descent into Hell, as an aid and security in that desperate undertaking \*. Which, in plain speech, was no more, than that they were initiated into the lesser Mysteries before they were admitted into the greater. The same may be said of what is told us of Thescus's adventure. Near Eleusis there was a Well, called Callichorus; and, adjoining to that, a stone, on which, as the tradition went, Ceres sat down,

<sup>\* -</sup> Καὶ τὸς στεὶ Ἡρακλία τε κὰ Διόιυσον, καιώθας είς μίδο, σρότερο λόγΦ μιθάδε μυνθίμαι, κὰ τὸ . ΘάρσΦ τῆς ἐκιῦσι πορείας παρὰ τῆς Ἐλιυσυίας ἐναίσκαθαι. Auctor Axiochi.

fad and weary, on her coming to Eleusis. Hence the stone was named Agelastus, the melancholy stone \*. On which account it was deemed unlawful for the Initiated to fit thereon. "For Ceres (fays "Clemens) wandering about in fearch of her daughter Proferpine) "when she came to Eleusis, grew weary, and sat down melancholy " on the fide of a well. So that, to this very day, it is unlawful " for the Initiated to fit down there, left they, who are now become " perfect, should seem to imitate her in her desolate condition +." Now let us fee what they tell us concerning Theseus's descent into "There is also a stone (says the scholiast on Aristophanes) " called by the Athenians, Agelastus; on which, they say, Theseus of fat when he was meditating his descent into hell. Hence the " stone had its name. Or, perhaps, because Ceres sat there, weep-"ing, when she sought Proserpine 1." All this seems plainly to intimate, that the descent of Theseus was his entrance into the Eleusinian Mysteries. Which entrance (as we shall see hereafter) was a fraudulent intrusion.

Both Euripides and Aristophanes seem to confirm our interpretation of these descents into bell. Euripides, in his Hercules surens, brings the hero, just come from hell, to succour his family, and destroy the tyrant Lycus. Juno in revenge, persecutes him with the Furies; and he, in his transport, kills his wife and children, whom he mistakes for his enemies. When he comes to himself, he is comforted by his friend 1 heseus; who would excuse his excesses by the criminal examples of the Gods: a consideration which,

Hic primum fedit gelido mæstissima saxo;
Illud Cecropidæ nunc quoque triste vocant.

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;Ayéhar wiree. So Ovid:

<sup>† &#</sup>x27;Αλυμίτη γὰρ ἡ Δηὰ καθὰ ζήτασιι τῆς θυγαξός τῆς κόρης, ωτεὶ τὰν 'Ελιυσίοα,—αὐτικάμειι, κὰ Φείκλι ἐπικαθίζει λυπυμίτη. Τῶτο τοῖς μιμυτημίτοις ἀπαδοςτύθαι εἰσίτι τῶν, ἴοκ μὰ δικοῖι οἰ τιθελισμέτο μιμεῖσθαι τὰν ὁδυρομέτην. Clemens Protrept. pag. 10. A. Edit. Sylburg.

Ι Εςτ δι τ. 'Αγέλας & αίτζα καλυμένη απερά τοῖς 'Αθηκαίοις, ότα καθέσαι Φασδ Θησία μέλλούμα καθαθαίουν είς άδα όθει τ. τύνομα τη αίτρα η ότι είνει είναθεσει ή Δημήτης κλαίασα, όταν έξίτει την κέςτι. Schol, Equit, Aristoph. 1, 782.

as I have observed above, greatly encouraged the people in their irregularities; and was therefore obviated in the Mysteries, by the detection of the vulgar errors of polytheism. Now Euripides seems plainly enough to have told us what he thought of the fabulous deteents into hell, by making Hercules reply, like one just come from the celebration of the Mysteries, and entrusted with the aniphila. "The examples (says he) which you bring of the Gods, are nothing to the purpose. I cannot think them guilty of the crimes imputed to them. I cannot apprehend, how one God can be the sovereign of another God.—A God, who is truly so, stands in need of no one. Reject we then these idle sables, which the poets teach concerning them." A secret, which we must suppose, Theseus (whose entrance into the Mysteries was only a fraudulent intrusion) had not yet learnt.

The comic poet, in his Frogs, tells us as plainly what he too understood to be the ancient heroes' descent into hell, by the equipage, which he gives to Bacchus, when he brings him in, enquiring the way of Hercules. It was the custom at the celebration of the Eleufinian mysteries, as we are told by the scholiast on the place, to have what was wanted in those rites, carried upon asses. Hence the proverb, Afinus portat mysteria: accordingly the poet introduces. Bacchus, followed by his buffoon servant Xanthius bearing a bundle in like manner, and riding on an ass. And, lest the meaning of this should be mistaken, Xanthius, on Hercules's telling Bacchus, that the inhabitants of Elysium were the Initiated, puts in, and fays, "And I am the afs carrying Mysteries." This was fo broad a hint, that it feems to have awakened the old dreaming scholiast; who, when he comes to that place, where the Chorus of the Initiated appear, tells us, we are not to understand this scene as really lying in the ELYSIAN FIELDS, but in the ELEUSI-NIAN MYSTERIËS \*.

Îrior di, öre el ng dia rois le allo puiras Quirilas Myese annà τ

 ê habisa r

 ê habisa r

Here then, as was the case in many other of the ancient fables, the pomp of expression betrayed willing posterity into the marvellous. But why need we wonder at this in the genius of more ancient times, which delighted to tell the commonest things in a highly figurative manner, when a writer of so late an age as Apuleius, either in imitation of Antiquity, or perhaps in compliance to the received phraseology of the Mysteries, describes his initiation in the same manner. "Accessi confinium mortis; & calcato Proser-"pinæ limine, per omnia vectus elementa remeavi: nocte media "vidi solem candido coruscantem lumine, Deos inferos & deos su-"peros. Accessi coram, & adoravi de proximo \*." Æneas could not have described his night's journey to his companions, after he had been let out of the ivory gate, in properer terms, had it been indeed to be understood of a journey into Hell.

Thus, we see, Virgil was obliged to have his Hero initiated; and he actually had the authority of Antiquity to call this initiation A Descent into Hell, 'H EIE ALOY KATABAEIE. Hence some of the pretended Orphic odes, sung at the celebration of the Mysteries, bore this title, a name equivalent to TEAETAI, or IEPOE AOFOE. And surely he made use of his advantages with great judgment; for such a siction animates the relation, which, delivered out of allegory, had been too cold and insipid for epic poetry.

We see, from Æneas's urging the example of those Heroes and Lawgivers, who had been initiated before him, that his request was only for an *initiation*:

Si potuit manis arcessere conjugis Orpheus,
Threïcia fretus cithara sidibusque canoris:
Si fratrem Pollux alterna morte redemit,
Itque reditque viam toties: quid Thesea magnum,
Quid memorem Alciden? & mi genus ab Jove summo.

It is to be observed, that Theseus is the only one of these ancient Heroes not recorded in history to have been initiated, though we have

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. xi. prope finem.

shewn that bis descent into tell was, like that of the rest, only a view of the Mysteries. The reason is, his entrance was a violent intrusion.

Had an old poem, under the name of Orpheus, intituled, A DESCENT INTO HELL, been now extant, it would, probably, have thewn us, that no more was meant than Orpheus's initiation; and that the idea of this fixth book was taken from thence.

But further, it was customary for the poets of the Augustan age to exercise themselves on the subject of the Mysteries, as appears from Cicero, who desires Atticus, then at Athens, and initiated, to send to Chilius, a poet of eminence \*, an account of the Eleusinian mysteries; in order, as it would seem, to insert into some poem he was then writing +. Thus it appears, that both the ancient and contemporary poets afforded Virgil a pattern for this samous episode.

Even Servius saw thus far into Virgil's design, as to say, that many things were here delivered according to the profound learning of the Egyptian theology. And we have shewn, that the doctrines taught in the Mysteries, were invented by that people. But though I say this was our poet's general design, in this samous episode, I would not be supposed to mean, that he followed no other guides in the particular circumstances of it. Several of them are borrowed from Homer: and several from the philosophic notions of Plato: some of these will be taken notice of, in their place.

The great Agent in this affair is the SIBYL: and, as a Virgin, the fustains two principal and distinct parts: that of the inspired *Priesless*, to pronounce the ORACLE (whose connexion with the Mysteries is spoken of above); and that of Herophant, to conduct the Initiated through the whole CELEBRATION.

<sup>\*</sup> See lib. i. ep. 16. ad Atticum, Edit. Ox. 410. T. III. p. 23.

<sup>†</sup> Chilius te rogat & ego ejus rogatu ΕΥΜΟΛΠΙΔΩΝ ΠΑΤΡΙΑ. lib. i. epist. 9. ad Atticum, Edit. Ox. 4to. T. III p. 9. On which Victorius observes, " κάτριο fere omnes excusi, " quemadmodum est in antiquis, habent: ut intelligat ritus patrios & institutiones illius sacræ familiæ, & augusta mysteria, ut inquit Cicero, ii. De legg."

<sup>1</sup> Multa per altam scientiam theologicorum Ægyptiorum.

Her first part begins,

Ventum erat ad limen, cum Virgo, Poscere fata.

Tempus, ait. Deus, ecce, Deus-

O tandem magnis pelagi defuncte periclis, &c, and ends.

Ut primum cessit furor, & rabida ora quierunt.

Her second part begins at,

Sate sanguine divûm,

Tros Anchisiade, &c.

and continues through the whole book. For as we have observed, the Initiated had a guide or conductor, called 'Ispopártys, Musalwyòs, 'Ispoùs, indisserently of either sex,\*, who was to instruct him in the preparatory ceremonies, and lead him through, and explain to him, all the shews and representations of the Mysteries. Hence Virgil calls the Sibyl magna sacerdos, and docta comes, words of equivalent signification: and this, because the Mysteries of Ceres were always celebrated in Rome by semale priests +. And as the semale Mystagogue, as well as the male ‡, was devoted to a single life, so was the Cumæan Sibyl, whom he calls Casta Sibylla. Another reason why a Priestess is given to conduct him, is, because Proserpine presides in this whole affair. And the name of the

Paucæ adeo Cereris vittas contingere dignæ. Juv. Sat. vi.

Quod nec concubitu indulgent, nec corpora segnes In Venerem solvunt.

<sup>\*</sup> Τὰς ἰκρίας [Δήμαζο] Μιλίσσας ἐκάλυν οἱ σοιαῖαί. Schol. Eurip, Hippol. Μιλίσσας αυρίως τὰς τῆς Δήμαζο ἰκρίας φασί. Schol. l'ind. Pythion.

<sup>+</sup> So the fatyrist,

<sup>‡</sup> Hicrophanta apud Athenas eviratur virum, & æterna debilitate fit castus. Hieron. ad Geron. De Monogamia. Cereris saccrdotes, viventibus etiam viris, & consentientibus, amica separatione viduantur. Tertul. De Monogamia, sub sinem. Καὶ τὸ ΙΕΡΟΦΑΝΤΙΔΑΣ, τὸ τὸ ἐμθῶχον, τὸ τὰς ἄλλας ἐμρίας μυβρίνης ἔχουν τίφαιουν λ' ὰ τὰ Δύμαθρι προσθύσθαι ταύτων φωνί. Schol. Sophoel. Oedip. Col. v. 674.—It was for this reason that these semale Hierophants were called Μέλισσαι, as is well observed by the Schol. on Pind. in Pyth. the Bee being, among the ancients, the symbol of chastity:

Priestes in the Eleusinian Mysteries shews that she properly belonged to Proserpine, though she was also called the Priestess of Ceres. "The Ancients (says Porphyrius) called the Priestesses of Ceres "Médicous, as being the ministers or Hierophants of the subterra"neous goddess; and Proserpine herself, Medicalogs." And Æneas addresses her in the language of the Aspirant, to the Hierophant:

Potes namque omnia: nec te Nequidquam lucis Hecate præfecit Avernis.

and she answers much in the style of those facred Ministers,

Quod si tantus amor, &c.

& INSANO juvat indulgere labori;

Accipe quæ peragenda prius.

For infanus is the same as igniagized, and this, as we are told by Strabo, was an inseparable circumstance in the celebration of the Mysteries +.

The first instruction the Priestess gives Æneas, is to search for the GOLDEN BOUGH, sacred to Proserpine;

Aureus & foliis & lento vimine ramus, Junoni infernæ sacer.

Servius can make nothing of this circumstance. He supposes it might possibly allude to a tree in the middle of the sacred grove of Diana's temple in Greece; where, if a sugitive came for sanctuary, and could get off a branch from the tree, which was carefully guarded by the priests, he was to contend in single combat with one of them; and, if he overcame, was to take his place ‡. Though nothing can be more foreign to the matter in question than this

<sup>\*</sup> Τὰς Δέμπης δε ειρείας, ὡς χθοιίας θιᾶς μύτιδας, Μέλισσας οἱ πάλωιοι ἐπάλων, αὐτύν το τὰν Κόρφο Μελιτύδη. De Antro nymph.

<sup>†</sup> Τὰ Δάμαζει τὰ Δία τὸ ΟΡΓΙΑΣΤΙΚΟΝ στὰτ, τὰ τὸ Βακχικὸυ, τὰ τὸ χυρικὸυ, τὰ τὸ στεὶ τὰς τελεθές μυτικόυ. lib. x. p. 468. B. Edit. Paris. 1620. fol.

<sup>‡</sup> See note Z, at the end of this Book.

rambling account, yet the Abbé Banier is content to follow it \*, for want of a better +. But the truth is, under this branch, is figured the wreath of myrtle, with which the Initiated were crowned, at the celebration of the Mysteries ‡. 1. The golden bough is said to be sacred to Proserpine, and so, we are told, was the myrtle: Proserpine only is mentioned all the way; partly, because the Initiation is described as an actual descent into hell; but principally, because, when the RITES of the Mysteries were performed, Ceres and Proserpine were equally invoked; but when the shews were represented, as in the first part of this Episode, then Proserpine alone presided. 2. The quality of this golden bough, with its lento vimine, admirably describes the tender branches of myrtle. 3. The doves of Venus are made to direct Æneas to the tree:

## Tum maximus heros

Maternas agnoscit aves.

They fly to it, and delight to rest upon it, as their mistres's favourite tree.

Sedibus optatis gemina super arbore sidunt.

For the myrtle, as is known to every one, was confecrated to Venus. And there is a greater propriety and beauty in this disposition, than appears at first sight. For not only the myrtle was dedicated to Proserpine as well as Venus, but the doves likewise, as Porphyry informs us &.

But the reader may ask, why is this myrtle-branch represented to be of gold? not merely for the sake of the marvellous, he may be assured. A golden bough was literally part of the sacred equipage in the shews, a burthen which the Ass, who carried the mysteries, we may be sure, was chiefly proud of. This branch was

**Sometimes** 

<sup>•</sup> Explicat. histor. des fables, vol. ii. p. 133. Ed. 1715.

<sup>†</sup> See note AA, at the end of this Book.

<sup>1</sup> Mujoine estány isepanish el pepunpine. Schol. Aristoph. Ranis.

<sup>§</sup> Τὸς δὶ Φιριφάτλης, παρὰ τὸ φέςδιιν τὰν φάτλαν, φασίν οἱ πολλοὶ τῶνομα τῶν θιολόγων. ἱκρὸν γὰς αὐτῆς ἡ φάτλα» Porph. De Abit, lib. iv. § 16.

## SECT. 4. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED.

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fometimes wreathed into a crown, and worn on the head; at other times, it was carried in the hand. Clemens Alexandrinus tells us \*, from Dionysius Thrax the grammarian, that it was an Egyptian custom to hold a branch in the act of adoration. And of what kind these branches were, Apuleius tells us, in his description of a procession of the Initiated in the Mysteries of Isis. "Ibat tertius, attollens PALMAM AURO SUBTILITER FOLIATAM, nec non mercurialem etiam CADUCEUM +." The Golden branch, then, and the Caduceus were related. And accordingly Virgil makes the former do the usual office of the latter, in assording a free passage into the regions of the dead. Again, Apuleius, describing the fifth person in the procession, says, "Quintus auream vannum Aureis "congestam RAMUL:s \cdot\tau." So that a golden beugh, we see, was an important implement, and of very complicated intention in the shews of the Mysteries.

Æneas having now possessed himself of the Golden Bough, a passport as necessary to his descent as a myrtle crown to initiation,

(Sed non ante datur telluris operta fubire, Auricomos quam quis decerpferit arbore fœtus,) carries it into the Sibyl's grot:

Et vatis portat sub tecta sibyliæ.

And this was to defign initiation into the leffer Mysleries: for Dion Chrysostom & tells us, it was performed is sixinal unique, in a little narrow chapel, such a one as we must suppose the Sibyl's grot to be. The Initiated into these rites were called MYSTAI.

He is then led to the opening of the descent:

Speluncæ alta fuit, vastoque immanis biatu Scrupea, tuta lacu nigro nemorumque tenebris.

<sup>- —</sup> mark Alyuniium 2) το των θαλλών των διδημίνων τως ωτοσπινώσι. Strom. lib. v. p. 568. p. 414, D. Edit. Sylburg.

And his reception is thus described:

Sub pedibus mugire solum & juga cœpta moveri Sylvarum; visæque canes ululare per umbram, Adventante dea.

All this is exactly similar to the fine description of the poet Claudian, where he professedly, and without disguise, speaks of the tremendous entry into these mystic Rites:

Jam mihi cernuntur trepidis delubra moveri Sedibus, & claram dispergere fulmina lucem, Adventum testata Dei. Jam magnus ab imis Auditur fremitus terris, templumque remugit Cecropium; sanctasque faces attollit ELEUSIN; Angues Triptolemi stridunt, & squamea curvis Colla levant attrita jugis—

Ecce procul ternas Hecate variata figuras Exoritur \*.

Both these descriptions agree exactly with the relations of the ancient Greek writers on this subject. Dion Chrysostom, speaking of initiation into the Mysteries, gives us this general idea of it: Just so it is, as when one leads a Greek or Barbarian to be initiated in a certain mystic dome, excelling in beauty and magnificence; where he sees many mystic sights, and hears in the same manner a multitude of voices; where darkness and light alternately affect his senses; and a thousand other uncommon things present themselves before him +."

Our poet next relates the fanatic agitation of the Mystagogue, on this occasion:

Procul, o procul este, profani, Conclamat Vates, totoque absistite luco. Tantum essata furens antro se immissit aperto.

<sup>\*</sup> De raptu Proserp. sub initio.

<sup>†</sup> Σχιδίν εν όμοιο, υστερ είτις άνδρα Ελλενα, ε Βάςθαςου μυτίσθαι σαςαδίδες εξς μυγικόν τινα οίκενο ετιρούς πολλει κ) μεγθει, έπολλά μεν όςυθα μεγίκά θεάμαθα, στολού δε άνδοθα τοιέτων φουύν, σπότως το κ) φοθός έναλλάξ αὐτο φαιτομένων, άλλων το μυχίων γινομένων. Ο Cat. 12.

So again, Claudian, where he counterfeits the raptures and assonishment of the *Initiated*, and throws himself, as it were, like the Sibyl, into the middle of the scene:

Gressus removete, profani, Jam furor humanos nostro de pectore sensus Expulit.

The PROCUL, O PROCUL ESTE, PROFANI of the Sibyl, is a literal translation of the formula used by the Myslagogue, at the opening of the Mysleries:

ΕΚΑΣ, ΕΚΑΣ ΕΣΤΕ, ΒΕΒΗΛΟΙ.

But now the poet having determined to accompany his Hero through all the mysterious rites of his *initiation*, and conscious of the imputed impiety, in bringing them out to open day, stops short in his narration, and breaks out into this solemn apology:

Dii, quibus imperium est animarum, umbræque silentes; Et Chaos & Phlegethon loca nocte silentia late, Sit mihi fas audita loqui: sit numine vestro Pandere res alta terra & caligine mersas—

And here let me observe, that this pretended apprehension of the Ancients, that they were doing an unlawful thing when they revealed the secrets of the Realm of Dis, arose from the custom of the Mysteries, where these sights were represented. For they had none of these scruples where they speak of the Habitations of the Celestial Gods. Claudian, who (as we have observed) professes openly to treat of the Eleusinian Mysteries, at a time when they were in little veneration, yet, in compliance to old custom, excuses his undertaking in the same manner:

Dii, quibus in numerum, &c.
Vos mihi sacrarum penetralia pandite rerum,
Et vestri secreta poli, qua lampade Ditem
Flexit Amor, quo ducta serox Proserpina raptu
Possedit dotale Chaos; quantasque per oras
Sollicito genetrix erraverit anxia cursu;

Unde

Unde datæ populis leges, et, glande relicta, Cesserit inventis Dodonia quercus aristis \*.

Had the revealing the *Mysteries* been as penal at Rome, as it was in Greece, Virgil had never ventured on this part of his poem. But yet it was esteemed impious +; and what is more, it was infamous.

-vetabo qui Cereris facrum

Vulgarit arcanæ, sub iisdem Sit trabibus fragilemque mecum. Solvat phaselum——

Hor.

He therefore does it covertly; and makes this apology to such as faw into his meaning.

The Hero and his Guide now enter on their journey:

Ibant obscuri sola sub nocte per umbras:
Perque domos Ditis vacuas, & inania regna.
Quale per incertam lunam sub luce maligna
Est iter in sylvis: ubi cœlum condidit umbra
Jupiter, & rebus nox abstulit atra colorem.

This description will receive much light from a passage in Lucian's dialogue of the Tyrant. As a company made up of every condition of life are voyaging together to the other world, Mycillus breaks out and says; "Bless us! how dark it is! What is become of the "fair Megillus? In this situation, who can tell, whether Sim-"miche or Phryne be the handsomer? Every thing is alike, and of one colour; there is no room for comparing Beauties. My old cloak, which but now presented to your eyes so irregular a figure, is become as honourable a wear as his Majesty's purple. They are, indeed, both vanished ‡, and retired together under "the

<sup>\*</sup> De raptu Proserpinæ, lib. i. sub init.

<sup>†</sup> Athenis initiatus [Augustus] cum, postea Romæ pro tribunali de privilegio sacerdotum Articæ Cereris cognosceret, & quædam secretoria proponerentur, dimisso concilio & corona circumstantium, solus audiit disceptantes. Sueton. lib. ii. Octav. Aug. cap. 93.

The original has a peculiar elegance. 'AΦANH γὰς ἄμφω, &c. alludes to the ancient Greek notions concerning the first matter, which they called ἀφανὸς, invisible, as being without

"the same cover. But my friend, the Cynic, where are You!

"give me your hand: you are initiated in the ELEUSINIAN MYS"TERIES. Tell me now, do you not think this very like the blind
"march the good company make there? Cy. Oh, extremely: and see,
bere comes one of the Furies, as I guess by her equipage, her torch,
and her terrible looks \*."

The Sibyl, on their approach to the mouth of the cave, had advised Æneas to summon up all his courage, as being to undergo the severest trial:

Tuque invade viam, vaginaque eripe ferrum:

Nunc animis opus, Ænea, nunc pectore firmo.

These trials were of two sorts: the encountering real labours and difficulties; and the being exposed to imaginary and false terrors. This latter was objected to all the Initiated in general: the other was reserved for Chiefs and Leaders. On which account, Virgil describes them both, in their order; as they were both to be undergone by his Hero. The real labours are figured under these words:

Vestibulum ante ipsum, primisque in faucibus Orci, Luctus & ultrices posuere cubilia Curæ: Pallentesque habitant Morbi +, tristisque Senectus,

without the qualities of form and colour. The investing Matter with these qualities, was the production of bodies, the τὰ φαιτόμενα: and their dissolution, a return to a state of invisibility.—εἰ; ᾿ΑΦΑΝΕΣ χωρί τὰ λαλυόμενα, as the pretended Merc. Trismag. has it, cap. xi. Matter, in this state of invisibility, was, by the earlier Greeks, called ʿΑΔΗΣ. Afterwards, the state itself was so called; and at length it came to signify the abode of departed spirits.

\* ΜΙ. Ἡράκλεις τὰ ζόρυ τοῦ τοῦ ὁ καλὸς ΜέγιλλΟ, ἡ τῷ ἄσγοῦ τις ἱιλαῦθα εἰ καλλίων Φρότης Εμμίχη, πάιλα γὰς ἴσα, κỳ ὁμόχροα, κỳ ἀδὸν ὅτι καλλίων ἀκλ' ἄδη κỳ τὸ τειδώνων, πρότερος τίως ἄμορθοι εἶται διαῦν, ἱσότιμω γέγιλλαι τῷ πορφυρίὰ τὰ βασιλίως ἀφαιῦ γὰς ἄμορω, κỳ ἐπὸ τῷ αὐτῷ σκότῷ καλαδικότα. Κυιόσει, σὰ δὶ πὰ πότι ἄρα ὁν τυχάνεις; —ἔμβαλό μοι τὰν ἄξιάν εἰπί μοι, ἐτιλίοθος γὰς, ὁ Κυιόσει, τὰ ΕΛΕΥΕΊΝΙΑ, ἀχ ΟΜΟΙΑ τοῖς ἰπιῖ ἰνθαδί σοι διαῦ; ΚΥΝ. εὖ λέγεις ἱδὰ ὅν προσέχχηλαι δράκχησοά τις, φιδερόν τι, κỳ ἀποιλαθικόν προσδλέποσαι ἡ ἄρα, πὰ Ἐρούς ἱςω; Luciani Cataplus, Τ. Ι. p. 643. Edit. Reitzii, 4°, Amstel. 1743.

† Quint. is mistaken in supposing pallentesque, &c. a metonomy. Had this been the description of an Hospital he had been right: For then, indeed, in these words, the cause would have been put for the effect.

Et metus, & malesuada Fames, & turpis Egestas:
Terribiles visu formæ; Lethumque, Labosque:
Tum consanguineus Lethi Sopor, & mala mentis
Gaudia, mortiferumque adverso, in limine Bellum,
Ferreique Eumenidum thalami, & Discordia demens———

To understand the force of this description, it will be necessary to transcribe the account the ancients have left us of the probationary trials in the Mysteries of MITHRAS, whose participation was more particularly aspired to, by Chiefs and Leaders of armies; whence these Initiated were commonly called the soldiers of MITHRAS. ". "No one, says Nonnus, could be initiated into these Mysteries [of Mithras] till he had passed gradually through the probationary "labours [by which he was to acquire a certain apathe and sanctity.] There were eighty degrees of these labours, from less to greater: and when the aspirant has gone through them all, he is "initiated. These labours are—to pass through fire, to endure cold, "hunger, and thirst, to undergo much journeyings; and, in a "word, every toil of this nature +."

The second sort of trial were the panic terrors, of the Myseries; and these, Virgil represents next. And to distinguish them from the figurative description of the real labours preceding, he separates the two accounts by that fine circumstance of the tree of dreams, which introduces the second sort:

In medio ramos annosaque brachia pandit Ulmus opaca, ingens: quam sedem somnia vulgo

Erubescite, Romani commilitones ejus, jam non ab ipso judicandi, sed ab aliquo mithræ milite: qui cum initiatur in spelæo, &c. Tertull. De corona militis.

<sup>† &</sup>amp; δύναίαι δι τις είς αὐτὸν τελισθύναι, εί μὰ σεότερον διὰ τῶν βαθμῶν τῶν κολάσεων σαςίλθοι. βαθμῶν τὰν κολάσεων τὰν μὰν άςεθμῶν ἐγδόκευλα, ἔχοθες δι ὑπίδασω τὰ ἀνάδασων κολάζοθαι γὰς σρῶττεν τὰς ἐλαθρονίςκες, εἶτα τὰς δραγικωτίρας. κὰ εἴθ ὅτω μετὰ τὸ σαρελθεῖν διὰ σασῶν τῶν πολάσεων, τεν τελεῖται ἐ τελάμει». αἱ δὶ κολάσεις εἰσὶ τὰ διὰ συρὸς ἀπρελθεῖν, τὰ διὰ κρώς, διὰ σείνες κὰ διὸντς, διὰ ἐδοπορίας σολλῆς, κὰ ἀπλῶς διὰ σποῶν τῶν τοιύτων. Nonnus, in Secundam Nazianz. Steleteticam. And again he fays, ἐδοὶς δὶ δύκελων τελεῖσθων τὰς τῶ Μίθςω τελείλες, εἰ μὰ διὰ σποῶν τῶν πολάσεων σπρέλδοι, κὰ δείξει ἐκυθίν ἀπαθῦν τὸν αδοίσεον σπρέλδου, κὰ δείξει ἐκυθίν ἀπαθῦν τὸν αδοίσεον σπρέλδου, κὰ δείξει ἐκυθίν ἀπαθῦν τὸν κὰ δείνου, δες.

Vana tenere ferunt, folissque sub omnibus hærent. Multaque præterea variarum monstra ferarum, Centauri in foribus stabulant, Scyllæque bisormes, Et centum geminus Briareus & bellua Lernæ; Horrendum stridens, stammisque, armata Chimæra: Gorgones, Harpyæque, & sorma tricorporis umbræ.

These terribiles visu formæ are the same which Pletho, in the place quoted above, calls ἀλλόκολα τὰς μορφᾶς φάσμαλα, as they were seen in the entrance of the Mysteries; and which Celsus tells us, were likewise presented in the Bacchic rites; τοῖς ἐν ταῖς Βακχικαῖς Τελίλαῖς τὰ φάσμαλα χὶ δείμαλα προεισάγκοι \*.

But it is reasonable to suppose, that though these things had the use here assigned to them, it was some circumstance in the recondite physiology of the East, which preserved them to this station. We are to consider then this dark entrance into the Mysteries, as a representation of the Chaos, thus described:

Ibant obscuri sola sub nocte per umbram, Perque domos Ditis vacuas & inania regna.

And amongst the several Powers invoked by the Poet, at his entrance on this scene, Chaos is one:

Dî, quibus imperium est animorum umbræque silentes: Et Chaos & Phlegethon, loca nocite tacentia late.

Now a fragment of Berosus, preserved by George Syncellus, describes the ancient Chaos, according to the physiology of the Chaldeans, in this manner,—" There was a time, they say, when "all was water and darkness. And these gave birth and habitation to monstrous animals of mixed forms and species. For there were men with two wings, others with sour, and some again with double saces. Some had the horns of goats, some their legs, and some the legs of horses; others had the hind-

<sup>\*</sup> Origen. contra Cels. lib. iv. p. 167.

"parts of horses, and the fore-parts of men, like the hippocentaurs. There were bulls with human heads, dogs with four
bodies ending in fishes, horses with dogs heads; and men, and
tother creatures with the heads and bodies of horses, and with the
tails of fishes. And a number of animals, whose bodies were a
Monstrous compound of the distimilar parts of beasts of various
kinds. Together with these, were fishes, reptiles, serpents, and
other creatures, which, by a reciprocal translation of the parts to
one another, became all portentously deformed: the pictures and
representations of which were hung up in the temple of Belus,
A woman ruled over the whole, whose name was Omoroca, in
the Chaldee tongue Thalath, which, in Greek, signifies the Sea;
and (on account of their powerful connexion) the Moon \*."
This account seems to have been exactly copied in the Mysteries, as appears from the description of the poet:

Multaque præterea variarum monstra serarum Centauri in soribus stabulant, Scyllæque bisormes, Et centum geminus Briareus, & belluæ Lernæ Horrendum stridens, slammisque armata Chimæra: Gorgones, Harpyiæque, & sorma TRICORPORIS umbræ.

The CANINE figures have a confiderable station in this region of monsters: And he tells us,

-vifæque CANES ululare per umbram:

• Γενίσθαι φησὶ χρόνον, ἐν ἢ τὸ αιᾶν, σπότος κỳ ῦδως εἶναι, κỳ ἐν τώτοις ζῶα τεςαθώδη, κỳ εἰδιφοιῖς τὰς ἐἰδις ἔχοιλα ζουγοκισθαι. "Ανθρώπες γὰς διπίκρες γενεθῦναι, εἰκις δι κỳ τέξαπθέρες, κỳ διπροσώπες.—τὰς μὲν αἰγῶν σκίλα κỳ εἰςαθα ἔχοιλας, τὰς δὶ ἐππόποδας, τὰς δὶ τὰ ἀπίσω μὲν μέςα ἔπτων, τὰ δὶ ἔμπτροσθεν ἀιθρώπων, ἐς ἐπποιενλαέρες τὰν ἰδιαν εἶναι. Συογονοδῦραι δι κỳ ταύμες, ἀιθρώπων πεβαλάς ἔχοιλας, κỳ ἀνθρώπως, κỳ αντις τθρασωμάτως ἀγὰς ἰχθύθο ἐι τῶν ἔπισθεν μεςῶν ἔχοιλας, κỳ ἄνδια δι ζῶα σποιλοπών θαρίων μεςθὰς ἔχοιλα, κιθαλάς μὲν κỳ σώμαθα ἔππων ἔχοιλα, ἀγὰς δὶ ἐχθύων κỳ ἄλλα δι ζῶα σποιλοπών θαρίων μεςθὰς ἔχοιλα. Πρὸς δὶ τότοις, ἱχθύας, κỳ ἐγπίὰ, κỳ ἔψοις, κỳ ἄλλα ζῶα σλιοιοα θαυμακά κỳ σαρπλαθμένα τὰς διψεις ἀλλάλον ἔχοιλα, δι κὰ τάτων πάιθων γυναῖια, ἢ ὅνοια "Ομορωπὰ. Εἶναι δὶ τῶτο Χαλδαῖε) μὲν Θαλάθ, ἱλληνεὶ δι μεθερμανεύθας θάλασσα, καθὰ δὶ ἐνόψορο Σελένω. Georg. Syncel, Chronogτ.

which Pletho explains in his scholia on the magic oracles of Zoro-aster. "It is the custom, in the celebration of the Mysteries, to "present before many of the Initiated, phantasms of a CANINE "figure, and other monstrous shapes and appearances "."

The woman, whose name Tbalath coincides with that of the Moon, was the Hecate of the Greeks, who is invoked by Æneas on this occasion:

Voce vocans HECATEN calo Ereboque potentem.

Hence terrifying visions were called *Hecatea* †. The reason why Hecate, or the Moon, came to be one of the Governesses in these rites, was, because some had placed Elysium in the Moon; the Elysian fields being from thence called the *fields of Hecate*. The ancients called Hecate, *Diva* TRIFORMIS. And Scaliger observes that this word *Thalath*, which Syncellus, or Berosus, says, was equivalent to the Moon, signifies TRIA.

And now we foon find the Hero in a fright;

Corripit hic subita trepidus formidine ferrum Æneas, strictamque aciem venientibus offert.

With these affections the Ancients represent the *Initiated* as possessed on his first entrance into these holy Rites. "Entering now into the "mystic dome (says Themistius) he is filled with horror and "amazement. He is seized with solicitude, and a total perplexity: he is unable to move a step forward, and at a loss to find the entrance to that road which is to lead him to the place he aspires to. "Till the Prophet [the vates] or Conductor, laying open the vestibule of the temple ‡"—To the same purpose Proclus: "—As

<sup>\*</sup> દોંબીર જર્મેડ જરમેમાં વર્ષેય વામાના વિદ્યાનિક વિદ્યાનિક માત્રી કરે. જામાની વામાની વામાના કર્યા કર્મેડ પાસ્ત્રી કર્યો કરો કર્યો કર્યા કર્યો કર્યા કર્યા કર્યા કર્યો કર્યા કર્યા

<sup>+</sup> Schol. Apollon. Argon. 1. iii. v. 859.

<sup>‡ &#</sup>x27;Ο μιν άβι σεροιών τοῖς ἀδύτοις, Φείκας τι ἀνιπίμαλαίο κὰ ἱλίγία ἀδημοία τὶ είχείο κὰ ἀποεία συμπάση, ἀδὶ ἔχνως λαθέσθαι είος τι ών, ὅτι ἀεχῆς ἡεινοσῶν ἐπιδεάξασθαι είσω Φιρώσης ἐπότι δὶ ὁ σροφέτας ἐκιῶΦ ἀναπείάσως τὰ σερπύλαια τῶ νιὰ. Οταt. in Patrom.

"in the most holy Mysleries, before the scene of the mystic visions, there is a terror insused over the minds of the Initiated, so," &c. ".

The adventurers come now to the banks of Cocytus. Æneas is furprized at the crowd of ghosts which hover round it, and appear impatient for a passage. His Guide tells him they are those who have not had the rites of sepulture performed to their manes, and so are doomed to wander up and down for a hundred years, before they be permitted to cross the river:

Nec ripas datur horrendas, nec rauca fluenta Transportare prius, quam sedibus ossa quierunt. Centum errant annos, volitantque hæc litora circum. Tum demum admissi stagna exoptata revisunt.

We are not to think this old notion took its rife from the vulgar fuperstition. It was one of the wisest contrivances of ancient politics; and came originally from Egypt, the fountain-head of legislation. Those profound masters of wisdom, in projecting for the common good, found nothing would more contribute to the safety of their fellow citizens than the public and solemn interment of the dead; as without this provision, private murders might be easily and securely committed. They therefore introduced the custom of pompous funeral rites: and, as Herodotus and Diodorus tell us, were of all people the most circumstantially ceremonious in the observance of them. To secure these by the force of Religion, as well as civil custom, they taught, that the deceased could not retire to a place of rest, till these rites were performed. The notion spread so wide, and fixed its roots so deep, that the substance of the superstition remains, even to this day, in most civilized countries. By so effectual a method did the Legislature gain its end, the security of the citizen. There is a circumstance in classical antiquity

<sup>\*</sup> Ποτις δι τοῦς ἀγιθάτοις τιλθοῦς τρὸ τῶν μυγικῶν θιαμάτων ἔκτλεξις τῶν μυσμένω, ὅτω — In Plat. Theol. lib. iii. cap. 18.

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which will sufficiently inform us of how great moment these rites were esteemed. Homer, Sophocles, and Euripides, are confessed to be the greatest masters of their art, and to have given us the best models of it. Yet, in the judgement of modern critics, the funeral rites for Patroclus, in the Iliad, and for Ajax and Polynices, in the Ajax and the Phœnicians, are a vicious continuation of the story, which violates the unity of the action. But they did not consider. that funeral rites were anciently deemed an inseparable part of the Hero's story: And therefore those great masters of design could not understand the action to be complete, till that important office to the dead was dispatched \*. Nay so dreadful was the apprehension of the want of funeral Rites, that the Historians tell us, it was one of the principal causes of the Spartan bashfulness, in that War in which Tyriaus was employed to restore them to their ancient Spirit. Who when he had diffipated this superstitious terror by the magic of his martial numbers, they rushed on to the charge with a resolution to conquer or to die.

But the Egyptian Sage found, afterwards, another use in this opinion; and by artfully turning it to a punishment on insolvent debtors, strengthened public credit, to the great advantage of commerce, and confequently of civil community. For, inflead of that general custom of modern barbarians to bury insolvents alive, this polite and humane people had a law of greater efficacy, which denied burial to them when dead. And here the learned Marsham seems to be mistaken, when he supposes, that the Grecian opinion of the wandering of unburied ghosts arose from this interdiction of sepulchral rites +. On the contrary it appears, that 'the law was

<sup>\*</sup> Πεοτεθήται हैं। हैं का कर्मण करें प्रथम करें किया, को बैदैवीय को शहर के में वेसर्वका; सहवीदात की का विवासित की Bung To de buelleift ruto re beforer ruet intimu fantur, no pie Butoplie anodone te Reid., pade ลังงอง เลเด็กแ ซอ๋ง ในบัรบั ลิพางุคาย์เนาเอง Bathan. Herod. lib. ii. cap. 136. Edit. Gale, p. 142.

<sup>+</sup> Ab interdice apud Ægyptios sepulture pona, inolevit apud Gracos opinio insepultorum corporum animas à Charonte non esse admissas. Canon Chronicus, Seculum xi. sec. 3.

founded on the opinion, originally Egyptian, and not the opinion on the law; for the law had no other fanction than the opinion.

In a word, had not our poet conceived it a matter of much importance, he had hardly dwelt so long upon it, or returned again to it \*, or laid so much stress on it, or made his hero so attentively consider it:

Constitut Anchisa satus, & vestigia pressit, Multa Putans.

But having added,

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-Sortemque animo miseratus iniquam;

and Servius commented, "Iniqua enim fors est puniri propter alte-, "rius negligentiam: nec enim quis culpa sua caret sepulchro;" Mr. Bayle cries out +, "What injustice is this! was it the fault of these souls, that their bodies were not interred?" But neither of them knowing the origin of this opinion, nor seeing its use, the latter ascribes that to the blindness of Religion, which was the issue of wise Policy. Virgil, by his fors iniqua, means no more than that in this, as well as in several other civil institutions, a public benefit was often a private injury.

The next thing observable is the ferry-man, Charon; and he, the learned well know, was a man of this world, an Egyptian of a well-known Character. This People, like the rest of mankind, in their descriptions of the other world, used to copy from something they were well acquainted with in this. In their funeral rites, which, as we observed, was a matter of greater moment with them than with any other people, they used to carry their dead over the Nile, and through the marsh of Acherusia, and there put them into subterraneous caverns; the serry-man employed in this business being, in their language, called Charon. Now in their Mysteries, the description of the passage into the other world was borrowed,

<sup>\*</sup> Ver. 373. & seq,

<sup>†</sup> Respons, aux Quest. d'un Provincial, p. iii. cap. 22.

as was natural, from the circumstances of their funeral rites. So that the Charon below might very well refuse to charge his Boat with those whom his namesake above had not admitted. And it might be easily proved, if there was occasion, that the Egyptians themselves transferred these realities into the MT $\Theta$ O $\Sigma$ , and not the Greeks, as later writers generally imagine.

Charon is appealed at the fight of the golden bough:

Ille admirans venerabile donum

Fatalis virgæ, Longo Post Tempore visum.

But it is represented as the passport of all the ancient Heroes who had descended into hell; how then could it be said to be longo post tempore visum, Æneas being so near the times of those Heroes? To explain this, we must have in mind what hath been said above of a persect Lawgiver's being held out in Æneas, and of Augustus's being delineated in the Trojan chief. So that here Virgil is pointing to his Master; and what he would insinuate, is, that the Roman emperor, initiated in the Eleusinian rites, should, in a later age, rival the same of the first Grecian Lawgivers.

But Æneas hath now crossed the river, and is come into the proper regions of the dead. The first Apparition that occurs is the dog Cerberus:

Hæc ingens latratu regna trifauci Personat, adverso recubans immanis in antro.

This is plainly one of the phantoms of the Mysteries, which, Pletho tells us above, was in the shape of a dog, xunida runi. And in the sable of Hercules's descent into hell, which, we have shewn, signified no more than his Initiation into the Mysteries, it is said to have been, amongst other things, for fetching up the dog Cerberus.

The Prophetess, to appeale his rage, gives him a medicated cake, which casts him into a slumber:

Cui vates, horrere videns jam colla colubris, Melle soporatam et medicatis frugibus offam Objicit.

Vel. I. M m

In the Mysteries of Trophonius (who was said to be nursed by Ceres\*, that is, as I understand it, to derive his rites from the Eleusinian) the Initiated carried the same sort of medicated Cakes to appeale the serpents he met with in his passage +. Tertullian, who gives all Mysteries to the devil; and very equitably, as the good man makes him the author of all that is done there, mentions the offering up of these cakes, celebrat et panis oblationem ‡. This in question was of poppy-seed, made up with honey; and so I understand medicatis frugibus, here, on the authority of the poet himself, who, in the fourth book, makes the priestess of Venus prepare the same treat for the dragon who guarded the Hesperian fruit:

Spargens humida mella soporiferumque papaver.

Honey, as we have shewn above, was facred to Proserpine, who on that account was called Μελθώδης; and the poppy was consecrated to Ceres: "Cereale Papaver," says Virgil; on which words Servius thus comments: "Vel quod est usui, sicut frumentum, vel quo "Ceres usa est ad oblivionem doloris; nam ob raptum Proserpinæ" vigiliis desatigata, gustato eo acta est in soporem §."

But, without doubt, the images, which the spiscated juice of poppy presents to the fancy, was one reason why this drug had a place in the ceremonial of the shews: not improbably, it might be given to some at least of the *Initiated*, to aid the impression of those mystic visions which passed before them. For that something like this was done, that is, giving medicated drugs to the Aspirants, we are informed by Plutarch; who speaks of a shrub called Leucophyllus used in the celebration of the *Mysteries* of *Hecate*, which drives men into a kind of frenzy, and makes them confess all the

<sup>\*</sup> Δήμιθει—τὰ Τροφωνίω είναι τροφόν. Paulan. Bœot. c. 39. pag. 790. Edit. Kuhnii, folio, Lipf. 1696.

<sup>†</sup> Mederliedas irágeoles is rais xeseis, pecdificala igrilie. -- Philos. Vit. Apoll. 1. viii. c. 15.

<sup>1</sup> De præser. adver. hæret.

<sup>§</sup> Ad lib. i. Georg. ver. 212.

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wickedness they had done or intended. And confession was one necessary preparative for initiation.

The regions, according to Virgil's Topography, are divided into three parts: 1. Purgatory. 2. Tartarus. 3. Elysium. For Deiphobus (in the first) says,

Discedam, EXPLEBO numerum, reddarque tenebris \*.

And, in the second, it is said of Theseus,

Sedet, ETERNUMque sedebit

Infelix Theseus.

The Mysteries divided them in the same manner. So Plato, in the passage + quoted above (where he speaks of what was taught in the Mysteries) talks of souls sticking fast in mire and filth, and remaining in darkness, till a long series of years had purged and purished them; and Celsus, in Origen ‡, says, that the Mysteries taught the doctrine of eternal punishments.

Of all the three States this of Tartarus only was eternal. There was, indeed, another, in the ancient pagan theology, which had the same relation to Elysium, that Tartarus had to Purgatory, the extreme of reward, as Tartarus of punishment. But then this state was not in the infernal regions, but in Heaven. Neither was it the lot of common Men, but reserved for beroes and dæmons; Beings of a superior order, such as Hercules, Bacchus, &c. who became Gods on their admission into Heaven, where eternity was the consequence of their deisication.

Cicero distinguishes the two orders of souls, according to the vulgar Theology, in this manner: "Quid autem ex hominum genere consecratos, sicut Herculem & cæteros coli lex jubet, indicat omnium quidem animos immortales esse: FORTIUM BONORUM-"QUE DIVINOS §."

<sup>\*</sup> But the nature and end of this purgatory the poet describes at large, from ver. 736, to ver. 745.

<sup>+</sup> See note (1) p. 209.

<sup>1</sup> See note (†) p. 220.

<sup>5</sup> De Legg. lib. ii. cap. 13.

And here it is to our purpose to observe, that the Virtues and Vices, which stock these three Divisions with inhabitants, are such as more immediately affect Society. A plain proof that the poet followed the views of the Legislator, the institutor of the Mysteries.

Purgatory, the first division, is inhabited by suicides, extravagant lovers, and ambitious warriors: And, in a word, by all those who had indulged the violence of their passions; which made them rather wretched than wicked. It is remarkable that amongst these we find one of the *Initiated*:

## Cererique sacrum Polybæten.

This was agreeable to the public doctrine of the Mysteries, which taught, that initiation with virtue procured men great advantages over others, in a future state; but that without virtue, it was of no avail.

Of all these disorders, the poet hath more distinctly marked out the misery of Suicide:

Proxima deinde tenent mæsti loca, qui sibi lethum Insontes peperere manu, lucemque perosi Projecere animas. Quam vellent æthere in alto Nunc & pauperiem & duros perserre labores!

Here he keeps close to the mysteries; which not only forbad fuicide, but taught on what account it was criminal. "That "which is said in the MYSTERIES (says Plato) concerning these "matters of man's being placed in a certain watch or station, which "it is unlawful to sly from, or forsake, is a prosound doctrine, and not easily fathomed \*." Insontes, says the Poet, to distinguish Suicides (properly so called) from those whom the Laws condemned to be their own Executioners: for this inhuman treat-

<sup>\*</sup> Ο μίτ ἐν ἐν ΑΠΟΡΡΗΤΟΙΣ λιγόμεν συρὶ αὐτῶν λόγον, ὡς ἔν του φικςς ἰσμὰν οἰ ἄνθρυτοι κỷ ἐν λι λι ἐκολὸς ἐν τα τις μου φαίνελαι κỷ ἐν ἡρά Δο λελειων Phys.d. p. 62. Ser. ed. tom. i. See note BB, at the end of this Book.

ment was amongst the capital inflictions, in the Criminal Code of the Ancients.

Hitherto all goes well. But what must we say to the poet's putting new-born infants, and men falsely condemned, into his purgatory? For though the faith and inquisition of modern Rome send many of both sorts into a place of punishment, yet the genius of ancient paganism had a gentler aspect. It is, indeed, difficult to tell what these inmates have to do here. Let us consider the case of the infants; and if we find it can only be cleared up by the general view of things here given, this will be considered as another argument for the truth of our interpretation of the Descent:

Continuo auditæ voces, vagitus et ingens, Infantumque animæ flentes in limine primo: Quos dulcis vitæ exortes, & ab ubere raptos Abstulit atra dies, & funere mersit acerbo.

These appear to have been the cries and lamentings that, Proclus tells us, were heard in the Mysteries\*. So that we only want to know the original of so extraordinary a circumstance. Which I take to have been just such another provision of the Lawgiver for the security of infancy, as that about sureral rites was for the ADULT. For nothing could more engage Parents in the care and preservation of their young, than so terrible a doctrine. Nor are we to imagine, that their natural sondness needed no inforcement, or support: for that most degenerate and horrid practice among the ancients, of exposing infants, was universal; and had almost erased mariality from the minds of the best instructed, and instinct from the breasts of the most tenderly affected. St. Paul seems to have had this in his eye, when he accused the pagan world of being without

<sup>\*</sup> Καὶ τοῖς μυτηςίοις τὰ; μυτικὸς ΘΡΗΝΟΣ μυτικῶς Φυζεκλάβαμιι. In Comment. in Platonis Remp. lib. x.

<sup>†</sup> See note CC, at the end of this Book.

<sup>1</sup> See what has been further said on this subject B. I. Sect. 4.

NATURAL AFFECTION\*. It needed therefore the strongestand severest check: and I am well persuaded it occasioned this counterplot of the Magistrate, in order to give instinct fair play, and call back banished nature. Nothing, indeed, could be more worthy of his care: for the destruction of children, as Pericles sinely observed of youth, is like cutting off the spring from the year. Accordingly we are told by Diodorus, that the Egyptians had a law + against this unnatural practice, which law he numbers amongst the singularities of that highly policied nation. "They are obliged (says he) to bring up all their children, in order to render the country populous; this being esteemed the best means of making states slourishing and happy ‡." And Tacitus speaks of the prohibition as no less singular amongst the Jews: "Augendæ multitudini consultur. Nam & NECARE QUEMQUAM EX GNATIS, NEFAS §."

Here again Mr. Bayle is much scandalized: "The first thing "which we meet on the entrance into the other world, is the sta"tion assigned to INFANTS, who cried and lamented without ceasing; and next to that, the station of men unjustly condemned to death. Now what could be more shocking or scandalous than the punishment of those little creatures, who had yet committed on sin, or of those persons whose innocence had been oppressed by calumny ?" The first difficulty is already cleared up: the second shall be considered by and by. But it is no wonder Mr. Bayle could not digest this doctrine of the infants; for I am much mis-

<sup>\* 1</sup> Cor. i. 31. 

† See note DD, at the end of this Book.

<sup>1</sup> Καὶ τὰ γινώμεια πάιλα τείφυσεν εξ ἀνάγκη; ενικα τῆς πολυαυθευπίας ὡς ταύτης μέγεςα συμβαλλομένης πρὸς εὐδαιμονίαν χώςα; τι ἡ πύλιω. Lib. i. Histor.

<sup>&</sup>amp; Tacit. Hift. lib. v.

La premiere chose que l'on rencontroit à l'entrée des Ensers, étoit la station des petits ensans, qui ne cessoient de pleurer, & puis celle des personnes injustement condamnées à la mort. Quoi de plus choquant, de plus scandaleux, que la peine de ces petites creatures, qui n'avoient encore commis nul péche; ou que la peine de ceux, dont l'innocence avoit été opprimée par la calomnie. Respons, aux Quest. d'un Prov. p. 3. cap. xxii.

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taken, if it did not stick with Plato himself; who, relating the Vision of Erus, the Pamphilian, concerning the distribution of rewards and punishments in another life, when he comes to the condition of infants, passes it over in these words: ——" But of chil- dren who died in their infancy, he reported certain other things not worthy to be remembered. Erus's account of what he saw in another world, was a summary of what the Egyptians taught in their Mysteries concerning that matter. And I make no doubt but the thing not worthy to be remembered, was the doctrine of infants in purgatory: which appears to have given Plato much scandal, who did not, at that time at least, reslect upon its original and use. But here let us take notice, for the honour of HUMANITY, that while Pagans both old and new could be shocked at this punishment, modern papists, to the eternal disgrace of Superstition, can condemn unbaptised Infants, without remorse, to infinitely greater.

But now, as to the FALSELY CONDEMNED, we must seek another solution:

Hos juxta, falso damnati crimine mortis;

Nec vero hæ sine sorte datæ, sine judice sedes.

Quæsitor Minos urnam movet: ille silentum

Consiliumque vocat, vitasque & crimina discit.

This designment appears both iniquitous and absurd. The falfely accused + are not only in a place of punishment, but, being first delivered under this single predicament, they are afterwards distinguished into two forts; some as blameable, others as innocent. To clear up this confusion, it will be necessary to transcribe an old story, told by Plato, in his Gorgias:——" This law, concerning mortals, was enacted in the time of Saturn, and is yet, and ever will be, in force amongst the Gods; that he who had lived a just

<sup>\*</sup> Τῶν δὶ εὐθὸς γεκμάτων, κὰ δλίγου χρόνου βιώνθων συρὶ ἄλλου ὅλογεν ΟΤΚ ΑΕΙΑ ΜΝΗΜΗΣ. De rep. lib. x. p. 6:5. Setr. edit.

<sup>+</sup> Servius, on the place, characterizes them in this manner—" qui sibi per simplicitatem adesse nequiverunt,"

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" not be tried, till they come into the other world. And as they

<sup>\*</sup> This evidently refers to the old Egyptian custom, when the judges beheld and examined their kings naked; with a land and examined their kings naked; with a land and land an

" are to be thus stripped, it is but fit their judges should await them "there in the same condition; that, at the arrival of every new "inhabitant, foul may look on foul, and all family relation, and 66 every worldly ornament being dropt and left behind, RIGH-"TEOUS JUDGEMENT may at length take place. I, therefore, who "foresaw all these things before you felt them, have taken care 44 to constitute my own sons to be the judges: two of them, Minos " and Rhadamanthus, are Afiatics; the third, Æacus, an Euro-4 pean. These, when they die, shall have their tribunal erected in "the shades, just in that part of the highway, where the two roads "divide, the one leading to the happy islands, the other to Tartarus. Rhadamanthus shall judge the Asiatics, and Æacus the "Europeans; but to Minos I give the superior authority of hearing " appeals, when any thing obscure or difficult shall perplex the "others' judgments; that every one may have his abode affigued " him with the utmost equity "."

\* भि: हैं। अंग्रेक की बाहे केरीहर्जन का देनों Keóse, में केरी में अंग देंग दिये हैं। में मिटरें, प्राप्त केरीहर्जन का को मारे कियांगर कोर βιον διελθόνία मुं દેવાંલક, देकांबीक τελευίτου, είς μαπάρου νέσυς αυτόνία, είπεδ ? σπάση εύδαιμονίσ દેશમહેς પ્રવસ્તીન મહેન કરે તે સામાન મુદ્રે વેધિકા, કોડ મહે મોડ મહિલાંડ મા મુદ્રે કેલ્લાન કેલ્લાના કરે છે. માંફીવણન પ્રવસ્તીનાન, લિલાન Túrus જે તૈયલકનો દેશો Kebru, સે દૈયા ભાકરે થઈ Διοેડ થશે તેફસ્ટ્રેક દ્વિકોનિક, દેશીલક તેફના દેશીયા, દેશાંત્ર કેમાર્ટફ તૈયાર્લફ્રેડન્ટ τις મું μίλλοιν τιλιυζών κακύς છે? αો હોંκαι ἰκρίνοθο. "Οτι છે? Πλάτυν κું οો ἐπιμιληθαλ ἐκ μακάρων νόσων ἰύθες, έλογοι πεός τοι Δία, ότι φοίδρει σφίι ανθευποι εκαθεριστ ανάξιοι, είπει δι δ Ζεύς, 'Αλλ' έγω (έβα) જાવાંદન જરૂર ગૃહિલ્માના જેટ મોર બેલ્ વાવાનું નો સંવત તૈયાની તેમાં તેમાં તેમાં જાય જાય જાય છે. (જેમાં) નો મારાબંધાના માર્ચાનીયા માર્યા માર્ચાનીયા માર્યાનીયા માર્ચાનીયા માર્ચાની ζύδες γὰρ αείνοδαι, Πολλοί ἄν Ψυχάς ανουφάς έχρυδες, ὑμφιεσμένοι εἰσὶ σύμαδά το καλά, κὲ γόνο છે Φλάτυς κὸ दिशाविक के κρίσες कि, έρχοθαι αύτοις Φολλοί μάρτυρες, μαρθυρόσαυθες ώς δικαίως βιδιώκασω. Οἱ ὖν δικαταὶ ὑπό το τώτων ἐκπλήτθοθαι, κὰ ἄμα κὰ αὐτοὶ ἀμπιχόμενοι δικάζωτι, πρὸ τῆς ψυχῆς τῆς ni rà abriis auptiquala, ni rà rès neurpises. Heiros pis is (ifu) mauries iel meniòrat abrès rès Sáralo.\* ग्रेंग प्रदेश कर्श्वत्वक:\* रहेंग्व क्रोंग हैंग भ्रे के बीमीबा रखें Пह्वक्षिति, वेषक्ष के कर्षाक्य बरोरोंगे\* दिसाीब प्रथमिक्ट मुश्रीका क्षेत्रवंतीका नर्धनका. नार्कास्त्रन्यद प्रवेद केर्र मर्काम्कविक में नके महाविक केर्र प्रथमको रहेन्या, नार्कास्त्रम्य, वर्धनम् नम् कैप्यूमें बर्धनमें नेम कियूमे दिखादियां, हिंदादियां, बैयाविवार्वादि हेरबंदण, हिंदावा बर्धादियां निम करा विवास रकेंद्र पूर्वेद कार्रीय देशराप्ता रहे। प्रांत्माता, जिस केप्रसांत के प्रशंताद के. 'Eyd mit का रसप्तास केप्राध्याकेद कार्ट्याएक के outis, incorpaun dragas inte inabis. die pir in tie fis 'Apias, Mira et n' Paduparber fra di in tie Edewart, Alano. Obre. Di furidar redistioner, dudouers is to despos, it to recitio, it if he pipeles to δίδε, à με siç μαχάρω νάσυς, à d' siç τάρθαρο: ») τὸς με ix τῆς 'Ασίας Ραδαμάνθυς προεί, τὸς δὶ iu THE EUgúnus Aintós. Misu de merolita duou, inthaneimis, ide à dutiffelie et est étique, isa de dinais-Tata à neiois à mist rus mostias rois arbennes. Tom. i. p. 523. Serr, Edit.

Book II.

The matter now begins to clear up; and we see plainly, that the circumstance of the falsely condemned alludes to this old fable: so that by falso damnati crimini mortis (if it be the true reading) VIRGIL did not mean, as one would suppose, innocentes addicti morti ob injustant calumniam, but bomines indigne et perperam adjudicati; not men falsely condemned, but wrongfully judged, whether to acquittal or conviction; but condemnation being oftenest the sentence of justice, the greater part is put figuratively for the whole.

He who thinks this too licentious a figure, will perhaps be inclined to believe, that the poet might write,

Hos juxta, falso damnati TEMPORE mortis:

which not only points up to the fable, but hints at the original of it; and besides, agrees best with the context. But as the words, tempore mortis, are only to be explained by this passage of Plato, a transcriber might be easily tempted to change them to something more intelligible.

One difficulty only remains; and that, to confess the truth, hath arisen rather from a mistake of Virgil, than of his reader. We find these people yet unjudged, already fixed, with other criminals, in the assigned district of purgatory. But they are misplaced, through an oversight of the poet; which, had he lived to perfect the Æneis, he would probably have corrected: for the sable tells us they should be stationed on the borders of the three divisions, in that part of the high road, which dividing itself in two, leads, the one to Tartarus, the other to Elysium, thus described by the poet:

Hic locus est, partes ubi se via findit in ambas, Dextera, quæ Ditis magni sub mænia tendit: Hic iter Elysium nobis; at læva malorum Exercet pænas, & ad impia Tartara mittit.

It only remains to consider the origin or moral of the sable; which, I think, was this: it was an Egyptian custom, as we are told by \_Diodorus Siculus, for judges to sit on every man's life, at the time

of his interment; to examine his past actions, and to condemn and acquit according to the evidence before them. These judges were of the priesthood; and so, it is probable, taught, like the priests of the church of Rome, that their decrees were ratissed in the other world. Partiality and corruption would, in time, pervert their decrees; and spite and savour prevail over justice: As this might scandalize the people, it would be found necessary to teach, that the sentence which was to influence every one's final doom, was referved for a suture judicature. However, the Priest took care that all should not go out of his hands; and when he could sit no longer Judge, he contrived to find his account in turning Evidence: as may be seen by the singular cast of this ancient inscription: "Ego Sextus Anicius Pontifex TESTOR honeste hunc vixisse: manes ejus inveniant quietem "."

How much this whole matter needed explaining, we may see by what a fine writer makes of it, in a discourse written to illustrate Æneas's descent into hell: "There are three kinds of persons (says he) seed described as being situated on the BORDERS; and I can give no reason for their being stationed there in so particular a manner, but because none of them seem to have had a proper right to a place among the dead, as not having run out the thread of their days, and finished the term of life that had been allotted them upon earth. The first of these are the souls of infants, who are finatched away by untimely ends; the second are of those who are put to death wrongfully and by an unjust sentence; and the third, of those who grew weary of their lives, and laid violent hands upon themselves +."

After this, follow the episodes of Dido and Deiphobus, in imitation of Homer; where we find nothing explanatory of the true nature of this episode, but the strange description of Deiphobus; whose mangled phantom is drawn according to the philosophy of

<sup>\*</sup> Fabius Celfus Inscript. Antiq. lib. iii.

<sup>†</sup> Mr. Addison's Works, vol. ii. p. 300, quarto edit. 1721.

Plato; which teaches that the dead not only retain all the passions of the mind, but all the marks, and blemishes of the body \*. A wild doctrine, which Lucian agreeably rallies in his *Menippus*; who is made to say, that he saw Socrates in the Shades, busied at his old trade of *Disputation*: but that his legs yet appeared swelled, from the effects of his last deadly potion +.

Æneas, having passed this first division, comes now on the confines of TARTARUS; and is instructed in what relates to the crimes and punishments of the inhabitants.

His guide here more openly declares her office of HIEROPHANT, or interpreter of the Mysteries:

Dux inclyte Teucrûm,
Nulli fas casto sceleratum insistere limen:
Sed ME cum lucis HECATE PRÆFECIT avernis,
Ipsa Deûm pænis DOCUIT, perque omnia DUXIT—

It is remarkable, that Æneas is led through the regions of Purgatory and Elysium; but he only sees the sights of Tartarus at a distance, and this could not well be otherwise in the shews of the Mysseries, for very obvious reasons.

The criminals destined to eternal punishment, in this division, are,

1. Those who had finned so secretly as to escape the animadversion of the Magistrate:

Gnossius hæc Rhadamanthus habet durissima regna; Castigatque auditque dolos, subegitque fateri Quæ quis apud superos, furto lætatus inani, Distulit in seram commissa piacula mortem.

Mariyiar að iltir ti, si, si lyn ilgu tön ædnyön údár ti tý σύμαθι, ñ ότδ ματίγω ñ άλλων τραυμάτων ζών, κi τιθιιώτ@ τὸ σῶμά ἰτιν ἰδιῦ ταῦτα ἔχον καθιαγότα είτα τι μέγι, ñ διεγαμμίτα ζώθ@, κi τιθιιώτ@ ταῦτα ὕδηλα: ἐιὶ δὶ λέγψ οἰΦ είται σαρισκεύατο τὸ σῶμα ζῶι, ἔνδηλα ταῦτα κi τελειθήσσαθω τι σάθα, ñ-τὰ σολλὰ ἐπί τινα χρόνο. "Georg. p. 524.

<sup>†</sup> ετι μείδο επιφέσηδο αὐτῷ, τὰ δηθύκει ἐκ τῆς φαιμακοποσίας τὰ σκέλα. Τ. I. p. 481. Edit. Reit-Zii, 4°, Amstel. 1743.

And it was principally on account of such crimes that the Lawgiver inforced the doctrine of a future state of punishment. But it
is worth while to observe, that, according to the teaching of the
Mysteries, the RACK TO EXTORT CONFESSION, came originally from
THE PLACE OF THE DAMNED, where only it could be equitably
applied.

2. Those whose principles dissolve the first bonds of association, and society, the ATHEISTS and despiters of God and religion:

Hic genus antiquum terræ Titania pubes.

This was agreeable to the laws of Charondas, who fays: "Be "the contempt of the Gods put in the number of the most flagi"tious crimes "," The poet dwells particularly on that species of impiety which affects divine honours:

Vidi & crudeles dantem Salmonea pœnas, Dum flammas Jovis & sonitus imitatur Olympi.

And this without doubt, was an oblique castigation of the APO-THEOSIS, then beginning to be paid and received at Rome.

3. The infringers of the duties of IMPERFECT obligation, which civil laws cannot reach: such as those without natural affection to brothers, duty to parents, protection to clients, or charity to the poor:

Hic quibus invisi fratres, dum vita manebat; Pulsatusve parens; & fraus innexa clienti +; Aut qui divitiis soli incubuere repertis, Nec partem posuere suis; quæ maxima turba est.

4. Those pests of public and private peace, the TRAYTOR and the ADULTERER; with all their various spawn, of perjury and incest:

<sup>\*</sup> Εςω δὶ μίγεςα ἀδιτέμαδα θεῶν καθαφρέντσες. Apud Stobæi Serm, xlii. p. 290. lin. 34. Tiguri, fol. 1559.

<sup>†</sup> So the law of the Twelve Tables: PATRONUS SI CLIENTI FRAUDEM PECERIT,

Quique ob adulterium cæsi, quique arma secuti Impia, nec veriti dominorum sallere dextras— Vendidit hic auro patriam, dominumque potentem Imposuit; sixit leges pretio, atque resixit. Hic thalamum invasit natæ, vetitosque hymenæos.

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It is observable, he does not say, simply, adulteri, but ob adulterium cass; as implying, that the greatest civil punishment pleads for no mitigation of this crime at the bar of divine justice.

5. The INVADERS AND VIOLATERS OF THE HOLY MYSTERIES, held out in the person of Theseus, make the fifth and last class of offenders:

Sedet, æternumque sedebit
Infelix Theseus; Phlegyasque \* miserrimus omnes
Admonet, & magna testatur voce per umbras:
Discite justitiam moniti, et non temnere divos.

The fable says, that Theseus and his friend Pirithous formed a defign to steal Proserpine from hell; but being taken in the fact, Pirithous was thrown to the dog Cerberus, and Theseus kept in chains †, till he was delivered by Hercules: which without doubt means the death of one, and the imprisonment of the other, for their clandestine intrusion into the Mysteries. We have already offered several reasons, to shew that the descent of Theseus into hell, was a violation of the Mysteries: to which we may add what the ancients tell us of the duration of his imprisonment, which was four years; the interim between the celebrations of the greater Mysteries. So Seneca the tragedian makes him say:

<sup>\*</sup> The Phlegyæ here mentioned, I take to be those people of Boeotia spoken of by Pausanias, who attempting to plunder the temple of Apollo at Delphi, were destroyed by lightning, earthquakes, and pestilence; hence Phlegyæ, I suppose, signified impious, facrilegious persons in general; and is so to be understood in this place.

A Kalaryebislur di airie, Hugibes pir iceiln

Tự τραιβάρ τặ avid, Onesis & sigilà agaltiras.

Jo. Tzetzes, C. ii. cap. 51.

Tandem profugi noctis æternæ plagam, Vastoque manes carcere umbrantem polum. Ut vix cupitum susserunt oculi diem! Jam QUARTA Eleusis dona Triptolemi secat, Paremque toties Libra compositit diem; Ambiguus ut me sortis ignaræ labor Detinuit inter mortis & vitæ mala \*.

This may reconcile the contradictory accounts of the fable concerning Theseus; some of which say he was delivered from hell; others, that he was eternally detained there. The first relates to the liberty given him by the president of the Mysteries at the ensuing celebration: the other, to what the Mysteries taught he and all would suffer in the other world for violating them. This leads us to a circumstance which will much confirm the general interpretation of this samous Episode. In Æneas's speech to the Sibyl, Theseus is put amongst those heroes who went to, and returned from, hell:

Quid Thesea magnum, Quid memorem Alciden?——

But in the place before us he is represented as confined there eternally. Julius Hyginus, in his Commentaries on Virgil +, thinks this a gross contradiction; which Virgil would have corrected, had he lived to finish the poem. But can it be supposed, the poet was not aware of this, in two passages so near one another, in the same book? In truth, his employing these differing circumstances, confirms the general interpretation; and the general interpretation helps to reconcile the difference. Æneas wanted to be initiated; and when he speaks to the Sibyl, or Mystagogue, he enumerates those heroes who had been initiated before him; that is, such who had seen the shews of the Mysteries, of which number was Theseus, though he had intruded violently. But when Virgil

<sup>\*</sup> Hippol.

comes to describe these Shews, which were supposed to be a true representation of what was done and suffered in Tartarus, Theseus is put among the damned, that being his station in the other world.

This will remind the learned reader of a story told by Livy. "The Athenians (says he) drew upon themselves a war with Philip, on a very slight occasion; and at a time when nothing remained of their ancient fortune, but their high spirit. Two young Acarnanians, during the days of initiation, themselves uninitiated, and ignorant of all that related to that secret worship, entered the temple of Ceres along with the crowd. Their discourse soon betrayed them; by making some absurd enquiries into the meaning of what they saw: so being brought before the President of the Mysteries, although it was evident they had entered ignorantly and without design, they were put to death, as guilty of a most abominable crime \*."

The office Theseus is put upon, of admonishing his hearers against IMPIETY, could not, sure, be discharged in these shews by any one so well, as by him who represented the Violator of them. But the critics, unconscious of any such design, considered the task the poet has imposed on Theseus, of perpetually sounding in the ears of the damned, this admonition:

DISCITE JUSTITIAM MONITI, ET NON TEMNERE DIVOS, as a very impertinent employment. For though it was a sentence of great truth and dignity, it was preached to very little purpose amongst those who were never to hope for pardon or remission.

Even the ridiculous Scarron hath not neglected to put it in this

<sup>\*</sup> Contraxerant autem cum Philippo bellum Athenienses haudquaquam digna causa, dum ex vetere fortuna nihil præter animos servant. Acarnanes duo juvenes per initiorum dies, non initiati, templum Cereris, imprudentes religionis, cum cetera turba ingressi sunt. Facile cos sermo prodidit, absurde quædam percuncantes; deductique ad antistites templi cum palam esset per errorem ingressos, tanquam ob infandum scelus, intersecti sunt. Hist. lib. xxxi.

absurd light \*; and it must be owned, that, according to the common ideas of Æneas's descent into hell, it can hardly be seen in any other.

But, suppose Virgil to be here relating the admonitory maxims delivered during the celebration of these MYSTIC SHEWS, and nothing could be more just or useful; for then the discourse was addressed to the vast multitude of living spectators. Nor is it a mere supposition that fuch discourses made part of these representations. Aristides expressly says +, that in no place were more assonishing words pronounced or fung, than in these Mysteries. The reason, he tells us, was, that the founds and the fights might mutually affift each other in making an impression on the minds of the Initiated. But, from a passage in Pindar, I conclude, that in these shews (from whence men took their ideas of the infernal regions) it was customary for each offender, as he passed by, in machinery, to make an admonition against his own crime. "It is reported (says Pindar) that 44 Ixion, by the decrees of the Gods, while he is incessantly turning " round his rapid wheel, calls out upon mortals to this effect, "That they should be always at hand to repay a benefactor for "the fervices he had done them !." Where the word BPOTOI, jiving men, seems plainly to shew that the speech was at first made before men in this world.

The poet closes his catalogue of the damned with these words:
Ausi omnes immane nefas, Ausoque Potiti.

Cette sentence est bonne & belle, Mais en Enfer de quoi sert-elle?

† Τίνι δ' άλλυ χυρίων, η μίθων φημαι θαυμακότιςα εφύμυνσαι» η τα δεύμενα μείζυ έτχε τη έυτλη» ξεν, η μάλλον είς εξαμέλλον καθέτη ταξέ άνοαξε τα φώμενα; Eleus.

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For the antients thought that an action was fanctified by the success; which they esteemed a mark of the favour and approbation of the Gods:

Victrix Causa Diis PLACUIT, sed victa Catoni.

As this was a very pernicious doctrine, it was necessary to teach, that the imperial villain who trampled on his country, and the baffled plotter who expired on a gibbet, were equally the objects of divine vengeance.

Æneas has now passed Tartarus; and here end the LESSER MYSTERIES. Their original explains why this sort of shews was exhibited in them. We are told, they were instituted for the sake of Hercules, when about to perform his eleventh labour, of setching Cerberus from hell \*, and were under the presidency of Proserpine +.

The Hero advances to the borders of ELYSIUM, and here he undergoes the *lustration*:

Occupat Æneas aditum, corpusque recenti Spargit aqua, ramumque adverso in limine figit.

66 Being now about to undergo the lustrations (fays Sopater) which

" immediately precede initiation into the greater Mysteries, they

" called me happy 1."

Accordingly, Æneas now enters on the GREATER MYSTERIÈS, and comes to the abodes of the blessed:

Devenere locos lætos, & amœna vireta
Fortunatorum nemorum, sedesque beatas:
Largior hic campos æther, & lumine vestit
Purpureo: solemque suum, sua sidera norunt.

oi Ελιυσίνοι in αὐτή τὰ μιτρά ἐτοιήσαιθο μυτέρια — Εμυίθα is Ελιυσίνι τὰ δ' αὐτὸς ['Hçaελία] λιγόμινα ΜΙΚΡΑ μυτέρια. Tzetz. in Lycoph.

<sup>+</sup> को के pungà Tiegosporns-Schol. Aristoph. ad Plut. secund.

<sup>‡</sup> Μίλλων δε τος καθαφτίως, τως σφό τῆς τελέθης, ἐθυξχάνευ, ἐκάλων εὐδαίμονα ἐμαυθόν. In Divis.

These two so different scenes of Tartarus and Elysium explain what Aristides meant, when he called the shews of Elcusinian Mysteries, that most shocking, and, at the same time, most ravishing representation\*.

The Initiated, who till now only bore the name of Μύςαι, are called ΕΠΟΠΤΑΙ, and this new vition, ΑΥΤΟΨΙΑ. "The Αὐτοψία " or the feeing with their own eyes (fays Pfellus) is when he who " is initiated beholds the divine lights +."

In these very circumstances Themistius describes the Initiated, when just entered upon this scene. "It being thoroughly purified, "he now discloses to the Initiated, a region ‡ all over illuminated, and shining with a divine splendor. The cloud and thick dark-

Μὰ Φύσους καλίσης ΑΥΤΟΠΤΟΝ ΑΓΑΑΜΑ, Οὐ γὰρ χρὰ κιίνος σε βλίποι πρὶν σῦμα ΤΕΛΕΣΘΗι.

'Ησίαπ βλίψης μορφής άτας εδίερου σύζη Λαμπόμενου σπεβίδου όλυ κατά βάνδια κέσμυς Κλύ'ι συχές ζωνήν.

And the fight of this divine splendor was what the Mysteries called, ATTOTIA-

<sup>\*</sup> τύτον Φρικαλίταδο τι κό Φαιδεόταδο. Eleus.

<sup>†</sup> Αὐτιψία έρλη, όταν αὐτὸς ὁ τελύμει» τὰ θεῖα φῶτα ὸςἄ. In Schol. in Orac. Zoroaft.

<sup>†</sup> This which was all over illuminated, and which the priest had thoroughly purified, was αγαλμα, an image. The reason of transferring what is said of the illumination of the region, is, because this image represented the appearances of the divine Being, in one large, uniform, extensive light. Thus Jamblichus De mysteriis: Μελλ δε ταῦτα τῶν αὐτοφαιῶν ΑΓΑΛΜΑΤΩΝ λόγως ἀφορισόμεθαν ἀκῶν ἐν μὰν ταῦς τῶν θεῶν ΑΥΤΟΥΙΑΙΣ, ἐνεργένερα κὴ αὐτῶς τῶς ἀλθείας ἐςᾶται τὰ διάμαθα, ἀκρῶῦς το διαλάμανο, κὴ διαρθομένα λαμαρῶς ἐκρωιδια.—And again, Ὠσωντως τοίων κὴ ἐπὶ τῷ ΘΩΤΟΣ τὰ μὰν τῶν θιῶν ΑΓΑΛΜΑΤΑ φοῦς αλόω ἀκρῶνδια—τὸ μὰν τῶν θιῶν αῦς, ἄτομων, ἀφθεγαθῶν ἐκλάμανον κὴ κὸνροῖ τὰ ὅλα βάθη τῷ κόρω αυρίως, αλλ' ὁ ανεικοσμίως. ἡ ἱι. cap. 4. He says, too, that it was voitbout sigure, Δυχῶς δὶ τῆς μὰν ὅλας, κὴ ἱν ἀλοὶ τῶν καὶλ μές εν είδι καθεχομένες αῦς ἐγᾶται ἀνεθνον—cap. γ. To this image, the following lines in the Oracles of Zoroaster allude:

<sup>44</sup> Invoke not the self-conspicuous image of nature, for thou must not behold these
44 things before thy body be purished by initiation. This αῦτοκθοι ἄγαλμα was only a
diffusive shining light, as the name partly declares, thus described presently after, in the
same Oracles:

"ness are dispersed \*; and the mind emerges, as it were, into day, 
"full of light and chearfulness; as before, of disconsolate obscu"rity +."

Let me observe, that the lines,

Largior hic campos æther, & lumine vestit

Purpureo: solemque suum, sua sidera norunt,

are in the very language of those, who profess to tell us what they saw at their initiation into the greater Mysleries. "Nocte media "vidi solem candido coruscantem lumine ‡," says Apuleius on that occasion: for candido and purpureo lumine signify the very same thing.

Here Virgil, by leaving his Master, and copying the amiable paintings of Elysium as they were represented in the Mysteries, hath artfully avoided a fault, too justly objected to Homer, of giving so dark and joyless a landscape of the fortunata nemora, as could raise no desire or appetite for them: his favourite Hero himfelf, who inhabited them, telling Ulysses, that he had rather be a day-labourer above, than command in the regions of the dead. Such a representation deseats the very intent of the Lawgiver, in propagating the doctrine of a future state. Nay, to mortify every excitement to noble actions, the Greek poet makes reputation, same, and glory, the great spur to virtue in the pagan system, to be visionary and impertinent. On the contrary, Virgil, whose aim, in this poem, was the service of Society, makes the love of

Pletho tells us with what these clouds were accompanied, viz. thunder and lightning, and other meteoric appearances. Τὰ ἢ τολυμίνος φαινόμενα, κεζαυνοί, κỳ σῦς, κỳ εῖ το αλλο, σύμθολα ἄλλως ἐρὶν, ὰ θεῦ τίς φυσις. In Schol. ad Orac. Mag. Zor. He says they were symbols, but not of the nature of the deity: and this was true; for the symbol of this Nature was the αὐτοσθον ἄγαλμα which followed. Hence, as we see above, it was auithout figure.

<sup>† —</sup> ἀτοσμάξας σαιθαχόδιο, ἐτιδείκου τῷ μυνμένο μαρμαρύσσει τι ἄδα, κỳ αὐγῷ καθαλαμπόμενον Βιστισία, ἄτι δμέχλα ἐκείνα, κỳ τὸ νέφ» ἀθρόοι ὑπιβρόγουδο κỳ ἐξεφαίκδο ὁ νῶς ἐκ τῶ βάθυς, φίγθες ἀκάπλευς κỳ ἀγλαίας ἀκθ τῶ σερτιχοι σκέτυ. Οται. in Patrem.

<sup>1</sup> Met. lib. xi.

glory so strong a passion in the other world, that the Sibyl's promise to Palinurus, that his NAME should be affixed to a promontory, rejoices his shade even in the regions of the unhappy:

Eternumque locus Palinuri nomen habebit:
His dictis curæ emotæ, pulsusque parumper
Corde dolor tristi; GAUDET COGNOMINE TERRA.

They were the licentious stories of the Gods, and this ungracious description of Elysium (both so pernicious to society) which made Plato drive Homer out of his Republic.

But to return. The poet having described the climate of the happy regions, speaks next of the amusements of its inhabitants:

Pars in gramineis exercent membra palæstris; Contendunt ludo, & fulva luctantur arena.

Besides the obvious allusion, in these lines, to the philosophy of Plato, concerning the duration of the passions, it seems to have a more secret one to what he had all the way in his eye, the Eleusinian Mysteries; whose celebration was accompanied with the Grecian Games. On which account too, perhaps, it was that, in the disposition of his work, his sisth book is employed in the Games as a prelude to the Descent in the sixth.

1. The first place, in these happy regions, is assigned to Legis-LATORS, and the sounders of Society, who brought men from a savage to a civil life.

Magnanimi Heroës, nati melioribus annis.

At the head of these is Orpheus, the most renowned of the European Lawgivers; but better known under the character of Poet: for the first laws being written in measure, to allure men to learn them, and, when learnt, to retain them, the sable would have it,

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;Ενδεξόταδο ακάδων οι καθά τὰν 'Ελλάδα άγῶνες' κ) μὰν τύτων αροσθύταθο ὁ τῶν Παναθυναίων οἰ δὶ βύλει, ὁ τῶν 'Ελευσεκίκη. Ατίθίdes Panath.—Μυνδύναι δὶ ξίτων αρότας 'Ηρακλία, κ) Διοσκόρας' κ) οιά το γυμοκόν γενέσθαι αρώτον 'Ελευσεκί τῆ; 'Ατθείζο, Idem Eleulin.

that by the force of harmony, he softened the savage inhabitants of Thrace:

Threicius longa cum veste sacerdos Obloquitur numeris septem discrimina vocum.

But he has the first place; because he was not only a Legislator, but the Introducer of the Mysteries into that part of Europe.

2. The next is allotted to PATRIOTS, and those who died for the service of their country:

Hic manus, ob patriam pugnando vulnera passi.

3. The third to virtuous and pious PRIESTS:

Quique sacerdotes casti, dum vita manebat:

Quique pii vates & Phœbo digna locuti.

For it was of principal use to Society, that religious men should lead holy lives; and that they should teach nothing of the Gods but what was agreeable to the divine nature.

4. The last place is given to the INVENTORS OF ARTS mechanical and liberal:

Inventas aut qui vitam excoluere per artes: Quique sui memores alios secere merendo.

The order is exact and beautiful. The first class is of those who FOUNDED Society, heroes and lawgivers: the second, of those who supported it, patriots and holy priests: and the third, of those who ADORNED it, the inventors of the arts of life, and the recorders of worthy actions.

Virgil has all along closely followed the doctrine of the Mysteries, which carefully taught that virtue only could entitle men to happiness; and that rites, ceremonies, lustrations, and sacrifices would not supply the want of it.

Nor has he been less studious in copying their shews and reprefentations; in which the sigures of those heroes and heroines, who

were

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were most celebrated in the writings of the ancient Greeks, passed in procession \*.

But, notwithstanding this entire conformity between the poet's scenes and those represented in the Mysteries, something is still wanting to complete the proofs: and that is, the samous secret of the Mysteries, the unity of the Godhead, of which so much hath been said above. Had Virgil neglected to give us this characteristic mark, though, even then, we could not but say, his intention was to represent an Initiation; yet we must have been forced to own he had done it but impersectly. But he was too good a painter, to leave any thing ambiguous; and hath therefore concluded his hero's Initiation, as was the custom, with instructing him in the Association, or the doctrine of the unity. Till this was done, the Initiated was not arrived to the highest stage of persection; nor, in the sullest sense, intitled to the appellation of Essense.

Museus, therefore, who had been *Hierophant* at Athens, takes the place of the Sibyl (as it was the custom to have different Guides in different parts of the celebration) and is made to conduct him to the recess, where his Father's shade opens to him the dollrine of Truth, in these sublime words:

Principio cœlum, ac terras, camposque liquentes, Lucentemque globum Lunæ, Titaniaque astra Spiritus intus alit, totamque infusa per artus Mens agitat molem, & magno se corpore miscet. Inde hominum pecudumque genus, vitæque volantum, Et quæ marmoreo sert monstra sub æquore pontus.

This was no other than the doctrine of the old Egyptians, as we are assured by Plato; who says they taught that Jupiter was the SPIRIT WHICH PERVADETH ALL THINGS +.

 <sup>—</sup>όσα μὶν δὰ θίας ἐχύμενα εἶδιν γεικαὶ Φαμπληθεῖς εὐδαιμόνων ἀνδεῶν τὰ γυναικῶν ἐν τοῦς ἀξέψτως Φάσμασιν ἃ δ' εἰς τὸ μέσεν Φοιβαὶ, τὰ λογοποιοὶ τὰ συίγραφεῖς πάῦθες ὑμτῶσι — Atillid.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Ιδυμιι δι κ) τὰ τύτων Φαλαίταία. τι δι τὰ Διγύπία. τὰ Του φασί, διο.—κ) Δία μὶν, τὸ ΔΙΑ ΠΑΝΤΩΝ ΧΩΡΟΥΝ ΠΝΕΥΜΑ. Ια Cratylo.

We shall shew how easily the Greek Philosophy corrupted this principle into (what is now called) spinozism. Here Virgil has approved his judgement to great advantage. Nothing was more abhorrent from the Mysteries, than Spinozism, as it overturned the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments, which the Mysteries so carefully inculcated; and yet the principle itself, of which Spinozism was the abuse, was cherished there, as it was the consequence of the doctrine of the Unity, the grand secret of the Mysteries. Virgil, therefore, delivers the principle, with great caution, and pure and free of the abuse; though he understood the nature of Spinozism, and (by the following lines in his sourth Georgic, where he delivers it) appears to have been insected with it:

Deum namque ire per omnes
Terrasque tractusque maris, cœlumque profundum.
Hinc pecudes, armenta, viros, genus omne ferarum
Quemque sibi tenues nascentem arcessere vitas.
Scilicet HUC REDDI DENIQUE AC RESOLUTA REFERRI
OMNIA—

But the Mysteries did not teach the doctrine of the Unity for mere speculation; but, as we said before, to obviate certain mischiess of polytheism, and to support the belief of a Providence. Now, as a suture state of rewards and punishments did not quite remove the objections to its inequalities here, the Mysteries added to it the doctrine of the METEMPSYCHOSIS, or the belief of a prior state ‡. And this, likewise, our poet has been careful to record. For after having revealed the great secret of the Unity, he goes on to speak of the Metempsychosis, or transmigration, in this manner:

Has omnes, ubi mille rotam volvere per annos, Lethæum ad fluvium Deus evocat agmine magno Scilicet immemores supera ut convexa revisant, Rursus & incipiant in corpora velle reverti.

<sup>\*</sup> Book iii. Sect. 4. + See Book iii. Sect 3. & 4.

<sup>1</sup> Vid. Porph. de Abst. 1. iv. sect. 16. & Cic. Fragm. ex lib. de Philosophia.

And thence takes occasion to explain the nature and use of a Popish PURGATORY, which, in his hero's passage through that region, had not been done: this affords him too an opportunity for that noble episode, the procession of the hero's posterity, which passes in review before him: And with this the scene closes. One might well allow Virgil the use of so important a digression, (considering whom it was he celebrated under the character of Æneas) though it had been foreign to the nature of the Mysteries he is describing. But indeed he was even here following their customs very closely. It was then, and had been for some time, the practice of the My/teries, when communicated to any aspirant of distinguished quality, to exhibit to him, in their shews and representations, something ORACULAR, relating to his own fortune and affairs. Thus Himerius tells us, that Olympia, on her uprifing, after the birth of Alexander, was initiated into the Samothracian Mysteries; Where, in the spews, she saw her husband Philip, at that time in Potidæa \*.

In attending the hero's progress through the three estates of the dead, I have shewn, at almost every step, from some ancient writer or other, the exact conformity of his adventures to those of the Initiated in the Mysteries. We shall now collect these scattered lights to a point; which will, I am persuaded, throw such a lustre on this interpretation, as to make the truth of it irresistible. To this purpose, I shall have nothing to do, but to transcribe a passage from an ancient writer, preserved by Stobæus; which professes to explain the exact conformity between DEATH, or a real descent to the infernal regions, and INITIATION, where the representation of those regions was exhibited. His words are these: The mind is Affected and Agitated in Death, just as it is in initiation into the grand mysteries. And word answers to word as well as thing to thing: for Teaettan is to

Λίγιλαί σολι κ၌ "Ολυμπιάδα, τὰν ὶτὰ τοῦς Αλεξάιδην τόπως εἰδαίμοια δργιάζεται τὰ Καδείρου ἐσ Σαμεδράκη μυτάρια, ἐδεῖ καθὰ τὰν τελεθὰ τὸν Φίλισπου. In Eclog. Declam. apud Photium, Cod. 165. 243.

DIE: AND TEAEIXOAL, TO BE INITIATED. THE FIRST STAGE IS NOTHING BUT ERRORS AND UNCERTAINTIES: LABORIOUS WANDERINGS: A RUDE AND FEARFUL MARCH THROUGH NIGHT AND DARKNESS. AND NOW ARRIVED ON THE VERGE OF DEATH AND INITIATION, EVERY THING WEARS A DREADFUL ASPECT: IT IS ALL HORROR, TREMBLING, SWEATING, AND AFFRIGHT-MENT. BUT THIS SCENE ONCE OVER, A MIRACULOUS AND DI-VINE LIGHT DISPLAYS ITSELF; AND SHINING PLAINS AND FLOWERY MEADOWS OPEN ON ALL HANDS BEFORE THEM. HERE THEY ARE ENTERTAINED WITH HYMNS. AND DANCES. WITH THE SUBLIME DOCTRINES OF SACRED KNOWLEDGE. AND WITH REVEREND AND HOLY VISIONS. AND NOW BECOME PER-FECT AND INITIATED, THEY ARE FREE, AND NO LONGER UN-DER RESTRAINTS; BUT CROWNED AND TRIUMPHANT, THEY WALK UP AND DOWN THE REGIONS OF THE BLESSED: CON-VERSE WITH PURE AND HOLY MEN; AND CELEBRATE THE SACRED MYSTERIES AT PLEASURE #.

<sup>🔻</sup> Τὸ δί σάσχειν σάθθο, οἶον οἱ τελεῖαῖς μεγάλαις καθαγικζόμενον διὸ κὸ τὸ βῆμα τῷ βίμαῖε, κὸ τὸ દુંગુરુ કર્યું દુરુપુ કહે કારોકાર્યોકો છે. કારોદાંકીયા વ્યરુભાંકાલ, સ્ટોર્સલા કલે સ્ટાર્ટિકલ છે. સાફારિયાલો સરકારીના, જો કોન્ને ouérus ruie Croxin mogital uj arthison. ilra web re ribus abril ra duia máila, Celun, uj reépa-, n) ίξως, n) θάμβο» la δι τώτυ, φως τι θαυμάσιοι απινίποιι, ή τύποι καθαφί, n) λιιμώτις iδίξαίδο, क्रियां में प्रकृतिक में वामार्ग्यांक केम्प्रमर्वयम रेश्वी, में क्विनिक्मक्यम केर्नाम हैप्रकीश के करें। वे ककीरिय में में မှူးမှုယာမှုနှစ်မော် နေအပြေမော် အသွားတိုင်, သို့ ထိတ်ပြီး အားစုပြော နေအမှုန်းမော် စီရုံးရန်းမြောင်း သို့ တပ်များ စိတ်ခန့် သို့ အစစ်အစုပြော sermo exix. p. 605. lin. 33. Tiguri, ful. 1559. The Son of Sirach, who was full of Grecian ideas, and hath embellished his admirable work of Ecclesiasticus with a great deal of Gentile learning, hath plainly alluded, though in few words, to thefe circumflances of INITIATION, where encouraging men to feek after wildom, he fays:-" At first the will walk with him by CROOKED ways, and bring FEAR and DREAD 44 upon him, and torment him with her discipline, until the may trust his foul, \* and Tay him by her laws. Then will she return the STRAIGHT way unto him, and 4 COMFORT him, and shew him her secrets."—Airrapping wegitiles per abid is webres; Φ' BON δὶ κὰ ΔΕΙΛΙΑΝ ἐπάξει ἐπ' αὐτὸν, κὰ ΒΑΣΑΝΙΣΕΙ ΑΥΤΟΝ ΈΝ ΠΑΙΔΙΑ ΑΥΤΗΣ, ἴως ὖ ΕΜΠΙΣ ΓΕΥΣΗ: τῷ ψυχῷ αὐτῷ τὰ ΠΕΙΡΑΣΗ αὐτὰ: ἐν τοῖς ἄναιώμασιν αὐτῆς. Καὶ φάλιν ἐπαιζξιι αατ' ιύθιζαι σερός αύτου, 🐒 ΕΥΦΡΑΝΕΙ αύτου, 🥸 ΑΠΟΚΑΛΥΤΕΙ αύτος τὰ ΚΡΥΠΤΑ αύτος. Chap. iv. ver. 17, 18.

The progress simished, and every thing over, Æneas and his Guide are let out again to the upper regions, through the ivery gate of DREAMS. A circumstance borrowed from Homer, and very happily applied to this subject; for, as Euripides elegantly expresses it,

"ΥΠΝΟΣ τα MIKPA τω θανάτυ ΜΥΣΤΗΡΙΑ.

A DREAM is the LESSER MYSTERIES of death.

But, besides this of *ivory*, there was another of *born*. Through the first issued false visions; and through the latter, true.

Sunt geminæ Somni portæ: quarum altera fertur Cornea, qua veris facilis datur exitus umbris: Altera candenti perfecta nitens elephanto; Sed falsa ad cœlum mittunt insomnia manes. His ubi tum natum Anchises, unaque Sibyllam Prosequitur dictis, portaque emittit eburna.

Servius, with the rank spirit of a grammarian, who seldom finds any thing to stop at but a solecism in expression, says very readily, "Vult autem intelligi, salsa esse omnia quæ dixit. He would have you understand by this, that all he has been saying is salse and groundless." The following critics give the same solution. Ruæus, one of the best, may speak for them all: "Cum igitur Virgilius Æneam eburnea porta emittit, indicat prosecto, quidquid a se de illo inferorum aditu dictum est, in sabulis esse numerandum." This interpretation is strengthened by Virgil's being an Epicurean; and making the same conclusion in his second Georgic:

Felix, qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas, Atque metus omnes & inexorabile fatum Subjecit pedibus, firepitumque Acherontis avari!

But Virgil wrote, not for the amusement of women and children over a winter's sire, in the taste of the Milesian fables; but for the

use of men and citizens: to instruct them in the duties of humanity and fociety. The purpose, therefore, of such a writer, when he treats of a FUTURE STATE, must be to make the doctrine interesting to his reader, and useful in civil life: Virgil hath done the first, by bringing his Hero to it through the most perilous atchievement; and the fecond, by appropriating the rewards and punishments of that state to virtue and to vice only. Now if we will believe these critics, when the poet had laboured through a whole book, and employed all his art and genius to compass this important end, he foolifhly defeats his whole defign with one wanton dash of his pen, which speaks to this effect: "I have laboured, " countrymen, to draw you to virtue, and to deter you from vice, "in order to make particulars and focieties flourishing and happy. "The truths inforced to this purpose, I have endeavoured to re-" commend by the example of your ancestor and founder, Æneas; of whom (to do you the more credit) I have made an accom-46 plished hero; and have set him on the most arduous and illus-" trious undertaking, the establishment of a civil community: and 44 to fanctify his character, and add reverence to his laws, I have " fent him upon the errand you fee here related. But, lest the 46 business should do you any service, or my hero any honour, I " must inform you, that all this talk of a suture state is a childish 46 tale, and Æneas's part in it, only a fairy adventure. In a word, " all that you have heard, must pass for a lenten dream, from "which you are to draw no consequences, but that the poet was in a capricious humour, and disposed to laugh at your super-44 stitions." Thus is Virgil made to speak in the interpretation of ancient and modern critics \*. And this the conclusion he was pleased to give to the master-piece of all his writings.

<sup>\*</sup> This absurdity did not escape the learned Dacier, who, in his note on porta fugiens eburna, l. sii. Od. xxvii. of Horace, says,—Mais ce qu'il y a d'etonnant, c'est que Virgile fait fortir Anchise par la porte d'yvoire, qui est celle des saux songes; par la il detruit toutes les grandes choses qu'il a dites de Rome & d'Auguste.

The truth is, the difficulty can never be gotten over, but by fuppoling THE DESCENT TO SIGNIFY AN INITIATION INTO THE MYSTERIES. This will unriddle the enigma, and restore the poet to himself. And if this was Virgil's purpose, it is to be presumed, he would give some private mark to ascertain his meaning: for which no place was so proper as the conclusion. He has, therefore, with a beauty of invention worthy of himself, made this sine improvement on Homer's story of the two gates; and by imagining that of horn for true visions, and that of ivory for salse, insinuates, by the first, the reality of another state; and by the second, the shadowy representations of it in the shews of the Mysteries: so that, not the things themselves, but only the pictures of them, objected to Eneas, were salse; as the Scene did not lye in HELL, but in the TEMPLE OF CERES. This representation being called MTOOS, war' if or MYOOS.

Altera candenti perfecta nitens elephanto:
Sed FALSA ad cœlum mittunt infomnia manes.

For falsa insomnia do not signify lying, but shadowy dreams. Thus the Roman widow, in the samous sepulchral inscription\*, begs the Dii manes to be so indulgent to her husband's shade, that she may see him in her dreams; that is, seem to see him, as the shade of Hector was seen by Æneas,

In fomnis ecce ante oculos mœstissimus Hector Visus adesse mihi----

and this, in distinction to what the Roman Widow makes the other part of her prayer, to be really joined to him in the other world.

ITA PETO VOS MANES
SANCTISSIME
COMMENDATYM HADEATIS
MEVM CONIVGEM ET VELLITIS
HYIC INDVLGENTISSIMI ESSE

HORIS NOCTURNIS

VT EVM VIDEAM

ET ETIAM ME FATO SVADERE

VELLIT VT ET EGO POSSIM

DULCIVS ET CELERIVS

APVD EVM PERVENIRE.

Apud Grut, p. 786. But

But though the visions which issued from the ivory gate were unsubstantial, as being only representative; yet I make no question, but the ivory gate itself was real. It appears, indeed, to be no other than the fumptuous door of the temple, through which the Initiated came out, when the celebration was over. This temple was of an immense bigness, as appears from the words of Apuleius: " Senex comissimus ducit me protinus ad ipsas fores ædis Amplis-" SIME \*. Strabo is more particular: Next (says he) is Eleusis, " in which is the temple of the Eleusinian Ceres, and the mystic " cell built by Ictinus, CAPABLE OF HOLDING AS LARGE A NUM-"BER AS A THEATRE +." But Vitruvius's description of it is still more curious: " ELEUSINÆ Cereris & Proserpinæ cellam IMMANI 44 MAGNITUDINE Ictinus Dorico more, fine exterioribus columnis " ad laxamentum usus sacrificiorum, pertexit. Eam autem postea, " cum Demetrius Phalereus Athenis rerum potiretur, Philon ante "templum in fronte columnis constitutis Prostylon fecit. 44 aucto vestibulo laxamentum initiantibus operisque summam adjecit " autoritatem t." And Aristides thought this the most extraordinary circumstance in the whole affair: "But the thing most won-" derful and divine was, that of all the public affemblies of Greece, "this was the only one which was contained within the walls of " one edifice §." Here was room, we fee, and fo purposely contrived, for all their snews and REPRESENTATIONS.

And now, having occasionally, and by parts only, said so much of these things, it will not be amiss, in conclusion, to give one general and concise idea of the whole. I suppose the substance of the celebration to be a kind of drama of the history of Ceres; as those under the patronage of the other Gods represented their History;

Metam. l. xi. p. 996. Edit. Lugd. 8vo, 1587.

<sup>†</sup> Ελτ' Έλουσλο ανόλις, λο ή τὸ τῆς Δύμπης διερο τῆς Έλουσκοικος κὸ ὁ μυγικὸς σακὸς, δο καλιστιώσου. 'ΙκίδιΦ, ἔχλου θιάτρυ δίξασθαι δυτάμινω.—lib. ix. Geog. Edit. Cafaub. p. 272. lin. 30.

1 De Architect. Præf. ad l. vii.

<sup>§</sup> Τὸ ¾ ἢ μέγερο ἢ θιώταλο, μένα γὰς ταύτα συναγέμω εἴς εἶκΦ συλλοδὸν εἶχε. Eleufin. Osat.

so HERCULES and MYTHRAS, who protected the oppressed from the ravages of wild Beasts or more cruel Men, had their labours in war and bunting dramatically held out. The Story of Ceres afforded opportunity to represent the three particulars, about which the mysteries were principally concerned. 1. The rife and establishment of civil society. 2. The doctrine of a future flate of rewards and punishments. 3. The error of polytheism, and the principle of the unity. The Goddess's legislation in Sicily and Attica (at both which places she was faid to civilize the favage manners of the inhabitants) gave birth to the first \*. Her search for her daughter Proserpine in hell, to the fecond; and her resentments against the Gods for their permission of, or connivance at, the rape, to the third +. My supposition, of the dramatic nature of the shews, is not made without good authority. Lucian, in his Alexander, where he gives a large account of the impostures of that false prophet, speaking of the Mysteries which he instituted, in honour of his new-found .God, Glyco; fays, they were celebrated (after the usual prepara. tory rites of torch-bearing, initiation, and public notice to the prophane to keep at a distance) by a three Days festival: "On the 46 first day was represented the labour of Latona and the Nativity " of Apollo; the nuptials of Ceronis; and the birth of Æsculapius. "On the fecond, the appearance of Glyco, and the generation of 46 the god: and on the third, the marriage of Podalirius with the "mother of Alexander 1." Every thing in these rites being performed, as the turn of the learned author's relation necessarily im-

<sup>\*</sup> Teque, Ceres & Libera, quarum sacra – a quibus inicia vicæ, atque victus, legum, morum, mansuetudinis, humanitatis exempla hominibus et civitatibus data, ac dispertita esse dicuntur. Cic. in Verr. v. c. 72. Edit. Ox. 4°. T. IV. p. 478.

<sup>†</sup> This circumstance Apollodorus informs us of. His words are these: - λίαθώσα δε στις εξημανίω, ετι Πλάτων αὐτεν έρτασεν, ΟΡΤΙΖΟΜΕΝΗ ΘΕΟΙΣ ΑΠΕΛΙΠΕΝ ΟΥΡΑΝΟΝ είκασθώσα δε γυναικέ, ξαιν είς Ελιυστία.

<sup>†</sup> Λιίδες εγείνειο λοχεία, κὰ Απέλλυνος γοναί, κὰ Κοςυνίδος γάμος, κὰ Ασαλυπιές, ἐπίκετο' ἐν δε τῷ δυντέςς Γλυκώνος ἐπεφάνεια κὰ γένεσες τῶ θεῶ. Τζέτη δε ἐμέςςς, Ποδαλεφία το ἦν κὰ τῷς μαξοὸς 'Αλεξάνδια γάμος, &c. Τ. II. pag. 245. Edit. Reitzii, Amstel. 1746. 4°.

plies, in imitation of ancient usage. But here let it be observed, that the secrets of the Mysteries were unfolded both by words and actions: of which Aristides, quoted above, gives the reason; "That so the sounds and sights might mutually assist each other in making an impression on the minds of the Initiated." The error of polytheisin therefore was as well exposed by the dark wanderings in the subterraneous passages through which the Initiated began his course, as by the information received from the Hierophant: and the unity as strongly illustrated by the automore ayaaam, the self-seen image\*, the dissuite shining light, as by the bymn of Orpheus+, or this speech of Anchises.

On the whole, if I be not much deceived, the view in which I place this famous episode, not only clears up a number of difficulties, inexplicable on any other scheme; but likewise heightens and ennobles the whole poem; for now the episode is seen to be an essential part of the main subject, which is THE ERECTION OF A CIVIL POLICY and A RELIGION; custom having made initiation into the Mysteries a necessary preparative for that arduous undertaking.

But there is no place in this admirable Poem, even to the SHIELD OF ÆNEAS, which will not instruct us how considerable a station the MYSTERIES held in poblic life; and how necessary they were supposed to be, to compleat the equipage of a Hero.

The ornaments on this shield represent two famous Histories of different periods, and very differently executed. The first, a loose sketch of the foundation and early fortunes of Rome; the second, a highly finished picture of the victory of Actium. These so dissimilar pieces seem to be as oddly connected; by a sudden jump unto the other world.

Hinc procul addit

Tartareas etiam sedes, alta ostia Ditis; Et scelerum pœnas, & te, Catilina, minaci Pendentem scopulo, Furiarumque ora trementem; Secretosque pios; his dantem jura Catonem ‡.

<sup>\*</sup> See note (1) p. 283. † See p. 202,

But there is more in this disposition than appears at first sight. The several parts make an uniform and connected System. The first of the two principal parts, we have observed, is a view of the soundation and first establishment of ancient Rome. Now Dionysius of Halicarnassus tells us, that this city was in nothing more excellent, or worthy of imitation, than in the genius of its national Religion; which was so constructed, as to be always ready to render service to the State. Hence, Virgil, when he has brought us to the time in which their CIVIL establishment was perfectly secured by the slaughter and dispersion of the Gauls,

(Scutis protecti corpora longis),

goes on to the RELIGIOUS constitution:

Hic exultantes Salios, nudosque Lupercos, Lanigerosque apices, & lapsa ancilia cœlo Excuderat: castæ ducebant sacra per urbem

Pilentis matres in mollibus—

Now Strabo observes, that the ancient pagan religion consisted of two parts, the OPEN and the SECRET \*. The open, Virgil hath given us in the Salian and Lupercal rites. What remained was the fecret, and this he presents to us in an oblique description of the Mysteries; where (as we have shewn) the scenes of a future state were exhibited to the Initiated.

Hinc procul addit
TARTAREAS etiam SEDES, alta ostia Ditis;
Et scelerum pœuas, & te, Catilina, minaci
Pendentem scopulo, Furiarumque ora trementem;
Secretosque pios; his dantem jura Catonem.

So that, as before, a particular INITIATION into the Mysteries was meant by Æneas's descent to the infernal regions; here, the general CELEBRATION of them is to be understood by this contracted view of Tartarus and Elysium.

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. x. p. 467. C. Edit. Paris, 1620. fol.

As this meaning seems necessary to give common propriety to the description of the shield, there is reason, I think, for receiving it. And if we allow, that the MYSTERIES are here represented under the idea of the infernal regions, we gain a new argument in favour of the interpretation of the sixth book.

If it be asked why Cato is put, as it were, in the place of Minos; and Catiline, of Tityus: the answer will let us into another beauty. It is a fine infinuation, that these foreign rites of Eleusis deserved to be naturalized at Rome. In which he only followed the opinion of Cicero\*.

Here it may not be improper to take notice of a vulgar mistake, as old at least as Servius, that Cato the censor, and not Cato of Utica, is meant in this place; as if the Court-poet would not dare to celebrate the professed enemy of the Julian house. This made the critics seek out for a Cato of a distant age, to brave Catiline in Hell; when they might have seen it could be no other than his great contemporary, who had before withstood him in Rome. The last line,

SECRETOSQUE pios; his dantem jura Catonem, was probably a compliment to Cato in his little senate of Utica.

All this considered, we see the reason, the great artist had to call his picture, his portraiture on the shield,

----Clypei non enarrabile textum; an ænigmatical picture.

And now the nature and purpose of the fixth book being further supported by this collateral circumstance, it will enable us to discover and explain another beauty in the feventh; which depending on this principle, could not be seen till it was established.

If the recommendation of the Mysteries was of such importance in an epic poem of this species; and if, at the time of writing, many of the Mysteries were become abominably corrupt, we can hardly believe but that the poet, after he had so largely expatiated in praise of those that were holy and useful, would take care to stigmatize such as were become notoriously profligate: because this tended equally with the other, to vindicate, what he had in view, the honour of the institution. And what strengthens this conjecture, is the similar conduct of another great writer of antiquity upon the same subject, whom we are now coming to, Apuleius of Madaura, whose Metamorphosis is written altogether in this view of recommending the Pagan Mysteries; in which, as we shall find, he hath been no less circumstantial in reprobating the corrupt Mysteries of the Syrian goddess than in extolling the pure rites of the Egyptian Isis. A conduct so much alike, that the two cases will serve mutually to support what is here said of either.

This then seemed a necessary part in the plan of Virgil's Poem. But it was no easy matter to execute it. Another allegory would have been without grace; nor was there any repose in the latter part of the action of the poem, as in the former, to admit a digression of such a length. On the other hand, to condemn all corrupt Mysteries, in the plain way of a judiciary sentence, did not suit the nature of his poem: nor, if it had suited, could it have been used, without hurting the uniform texture of the work: after the pure rites had been so covertly recommended under figures and sictions.

The poct, therefore, with admirable invention, hath contrived, in the next book, to render the most corrupt of the Mysteries, the fecret rites of BACCHUS, very odious, by making them the instrument to traverse the designs of Providence, in the establishment of his Hero, and by putting a FURY on the office of exciting the aspirants, to the celebration of them. Amata, the mother of Lavinia, in order to violate the league and alliance between Æneas and Latinus, contrives, at the instigation of Alecto, to secrete her daughter; and to devote and consecrate her to Bacchus, in an initiation into one of his abominable rites:

## SIMULATO numine BACCHI

Majus adorta NEFAS, majoremque orsa furorem, Evolat, & natam frondosis montibus ABDIT\*; Quo thalamum eripiat Teucris, tedasque moretur: Evoë, Bacche! fremens solum TE VIRGINE DIGNUM\* Vociferans——

Fama volat: Furiisque accensas pectore matres, Idem omnis simul ardor agit, nova quærere tecta

Deservere domos-

Clamat: Io, matres——

Solvite crinales vittas, capite orgia mecum.

Talem inter sylvas, inter deserta ferarum

Reginam Alecto stimulis agit undique Bacchi +.

The Mysteries of Bacchus were well chosen for an example of corrupted Rites, and of the mischies they produced; for they were early and slagrantly corrupted. But his principal reason for this choice, I suppose, was a very extraordinary story he found in the Roman annals, of the horrors committed in that city, during the clandestine celebration of the Bacchic rites; which Livy has transcribed very circumstantially into the thirty-ninth book of his History.

Nor did the poet think he had done enough in representing the corrupt Mysteries under these circumstances of discredit, without specifying the mischiefs they produced; nor that he had sufficiently

<sup>\*</sup> Livy, we have feen, in his account of these rites of Bacchus, says, "Raptos a Diis homines dici, quos machinæ illigatos ex conspectu in abditos specus abripiant."

<sup>†</sup> Lib. vii.—Plutarch describes these corrupt Mysteries, in the same manner; but: adds, that they were not celebrated in honour of any of the Gods, but to prevent mischief from EVIL DEMONS, whom, by such sort of Rites, they would appeale and render nnocuous.—ioslas & 20 θουιας δονιες εμέρας ἀποφράδας τὸ σκυθρυπάς το αξι άμοθαγίαι τὸ διασκασμοί, νητικί τι τὸ μοπίκὶ, πολλαχῶ δὶ πάλιν αισχρολογίαι πρὸς ἰκροῖς, μανίαι τι ἄλλαι ἐρισίμιναι ἐριφαύχτιι σὸν κλόιο, θιῶν μὸν ἀδινὸ, ΛΑΙΜΑΝΩΝ δὶ ΦΑΤΛΩΝ, ἀποθρατῆς ἔνικα ψέσαιμι ἐν τελιῖο μιλιχία τὸ παραμυθία.—περὶ τῶν ἰκλιλοιπόταν χρητηρίαν. Edit. Francos. fol. 1599. T. II. B. 417. C.

distinguished them from the pure, without shewing those mischiefs to be such as the pure had taken care to obviate.

The next news, therefore, we hear of Amata, after her celebration of the rites of Bacchus, is her SUICIDE, and a suicide of the most ignominious kind:

Purpureos moritura manu discindit amictus, Et nodum informis leti trabe nectit ab alta.

This disaster, the poet makes Jupiter charge upon Juno; who, by the ministry of Alecto, excited Amata to an initiation:

Terris agitare vel undis

Trojanos potuisti: infandum accendere bellum, Deformare Domum, & luctu miscere hymenæos.

Suicide, as we learn by Plato\*, the boly mysteries expressly forbad and condemned. On which account our poet, in his allegorical description of what was represented in the Eleusinian, has placed these criminals in a state of misery:

Proxima deinde tenent mæsti loca, qui sibi lethum-

Thus nobly hath Virgil completed his defign on the subject of the MYSTERIES. The hero of the poem is initiated into the most pure and holy of them; his capital Enemy, into the most impure and corrupt; and the schemes and intrigues of each party have a correspondent issue.

To conclude, the principles here assumed, in explaining this famous poetical siction, are, I presume, such as give solidity, as well as light, to what is deduced from them; and are, perhaps, the only Principles from which any thing reasonable can be deduced in a piece of criticism of this nature. For, from what I had shewn was taught, and represented in the Mysteries, I infer that Æneas's DESCENT INTO HELL signifies an initiation; because of the exact conformity, in all circumstances, between what Virgil relates of his Hero's adven-

ture, and what antiquity delivers concerning the SHEWS and DOC-TRINES of those MYSTERIES, into which Heroes were wont to be initiated. On the contrary, had I gratuitously supposed, without any previous knowledge of what was practifed in the Mysteries, that the descent was an initiation, merely because Augustus (who was shadowed under the person of Æneas) was initiated; and thence inferred, that the Mysteries did exhibit the same scenes which the Poet hath made Hell to exhibit to his Hero, my explanation had been as devoid of any folid inference, as of any rational principle. And yet, if authority could support so impertinent a conduct, one might have ventured on it. A celebrated writer \*, in a tract intitled Reflections on the character of Iapis in Virgil, goes altogether on this gratuitous kind of criticism. Without any previous knowledge of the life and fortunes of Antonius Musa, the physician of Augustus, he supposes that Virgil meant this person by JAPIS, merely because Augustus was meant by Æneas. And then, from what the poet tells us of Iapis's history, the critic concludes it must have made part of the history of Musa; and so, instead of explaining a fable by history, he would regulate history on a fable. Whereas the principles of true criticism should have directed him to inquire previously what Antiquity had left us, concerning the person of Antonius Musa: and if, on comparing what he found there, with what Virgil has delivered concerning lapis, any strong resemblance was to be found; then, and not till then, his ingenious conjecture, that Iapis was Musa, would stand upon a reasonable bottom. It was not thus that an able critic + lately explained Virgil's noble allegory, in the beginning of the third Georgic; where, under the idea of a magnificent Temple, to be raifed to the Divinity of Augustus; the poet promises the famous epic poem which he afterwards erected in his honour; or, as our Milton fays,

----- built the lofty rhime."

<sup>\*</sup> Dr. Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester. [See his Epistolary Correspondence, 1783, vol. I. p. 329.]

<sup>†</sup> See Hor. Ep. ad Augustum, with an English Commentary, and Notes, p. 36.

But had the existence of such a poem never come to our knowledge, I am persuaded, this excellent writer had never troubled the world with so slender a conjecture that a Temple signified an epic poem: and therefore that Virgil executed, or at least intended, such a work. In truth, Critics should proceed in these enquiries about their author's secret meaning, with the same caution and sobriety which Courts of Justice employ in the detection of concealed criminals; who take care, in the first place to be well assured of the corpus delicati, before they venture to charge the fact upon any one.

Thus far concerning the u/e of the MYSTERIES to SOCIETY. How essential they were esteemed to RELIGION, we may understand by the METAMORPHOSIS OF APULEIUS; a book, indeed, which from its very first appearance hath passed for a trivial fable. Capitolinus. in the life of Clodius Albinus, where he speaks of that kind of tales which disconcert the gravity of philosophers, tells us that Severus could not bear with patience the honours the Senate had conferred on Albinus; especially their distinguishing him with the title of learned, who was grown old in the study of old-wives-fables, such as the Milefian-Punic tales of his countryman and favourite, Apuleius: " Major fuit" (says Severus, in his letter to the senate on this occasion) "dolor quod illum pro literato laudandum plerique "duxistis, quum ille næniis quibusdam anilibus occupatus inter " Milefias Punicas Apuleii sui et ludicra literaria consenesceret." That poor, modern-spirited critic Macrobius, talks too of Apuleius in the same strain. --- " Nec omnibus fabulis Philosophia repugnat, " nec omnibus acquiescit-Fabulæ, aut tantum conciliandæ auri-" bus voluptatis aut adhortationis quoque in bonam frugem gratia " repertæ funt, auditum mulcent; velut comædiæ; quales Me-46 nander ejusve imitatores agendas dederunt : vel argumenta 46 fictis casibus amatorum referta; quibus vel multum se Arbiter " exercuit, vel Apuleium nonnunquam lufise miramur. Hoc 46 totum fabularum genus, quod solas aurium delicias profitetur, e sa-" crario suo in nutricum cunas sapientiæ tractatus eliminat \*."-How-

ever he se sums to wonder that Apuleius should trifle so egregiously: and well he might. For the writer of the Metamorphofis was one of the gravest and most virtuous, as well as most learned, philosophers of his age. But Albinus appears to have gone further into the true character of this work, than his rival Severus. And if we may believe Marcus Aurėlius, who calls Albinus 46 homo exer-" citatus, vita tristis, gravis moribus "," he was not a man to be taken with fuch trifling amusements as Milesian fables. His fondness therefore for the Metamorphosis of Apuleius shews, that he considered it in another light. And who so likely to be let into the author's true design, as Albinus, who lived very near his time, and was of Adrumetum in the neighbourhood of Carthage, where Apuleius sojourned and studied, and was honoured with public marks of distinction! The work is indeed of a different character from what fome Ancients have represented it; and even from what modern Critics have pretended to discover of it. Those Ancients, who fluck in the outside, considered it, without refinement, as an idle fable: the Moderns, who could not reconcile a work of that nature to the gravity of the author's character, have supposed it a thing of more importance, and no less than a general satire on the vices of those times: "Tota porro hæc metamorphosis Apuleiana (says 46 Mr. Fleuri †) & stvlo & sententia, satyricon est perpetuum, ut " recte observavit Barthius, Advers. lib. ii. cap. 11. in quo magica 44 deliria, facrificulorum scelera, adulterorum crimina, furum & 66 latronum impunitæ factiones palam differentur." But this is far short of the matter. The author's main purpose was not to fatyrize the specific vices of his age (though, to enliven his fable, and for the better carrying on his story, he hath employed many circumstances of this kind) but to recommend PAGAN RELIGION as the only cure for all vice what soever.

To give what we have to fay its proper force, we must consider the real character of the writer. Apuleius, of Madaura in Afric,

<sup>\*</sup> Capitolinus, in Claud. Alb.

<sup>+</sup> Ed. Ap. in us. Delph.

was a devoted Platonist; and, like the Platonists of that age, an inveterate enemy to Christianity. His zeal for the bonour of philofopby is seen in that solemn affirmation, when convened before a court of justice, " Philosophiæ honorem qui mihi salute mea anti-"quior est, nusquam minui \*." His superstitious attachment to the Religion of his country is seen in his immoderate fonduess for the MYSTERIES. He was initiated, as himself tells us, into almost all of them: and, in some, bore the most distinguished offices. In his Apology before the proconful of Africa, he fays, "Vin' dicam, cujusmodi illas res in sudario obvolutas, laribus Pontiani commen-" darim? Mos tibi geretur. Sacrorum pleraque Initia in Gracia parsi ticipavi. Eorum quædam figna & monumenta tradita mihi a fa-" cerdotibus fedulo confervo. Nihil infolitum, nihil incognitum " dico: vel unius Liberi Patris Symmistæ, qui adestis, scitis, quid "domi conditum celetis, & absque omnibus profanis tacite venere-" mini. At ego, ut dixi, multijuga sacra et plurimos ritus, varias " ceremonias, STUDIO VERI et officio erga Deos, didici. Nec hoc ad "tempus compono: sed abhinc ferme triennium est, cum primis " diebus quibus OEam veneram, publice disserens de Æsculapii " MAJESTATE eadem ista præ me tuli, & quot sacra nossem percen-" fui. Ea disputatio celebratissima est; vulgo legitur; in omnium " manibus versatur; non tam facundia mea, quam mentione Æs-" culapii religiosis OEensibus commendata.—Etiamne cuiquam " mirum videri potest, cui sit ulla memoria religionis, hominem tot " Mysteriis Deum conscium quædam sacrorum crepundia domi adser-" vare †?" His attachment to the open worship of Paganism was not inferior to that of the fecret, as appears by what follows from the same Apology:---" Morem mihi habeo, quoquò eam, simu-" lacrum alicujus Dei inter libellos conditum gestare: eique diebus " festis thure & mero & aliquando victimis supplicare ‡." His

<sup>\*</sup> Apologia, p. 114. Ed. Priczi, Par. 1635. 4to. in fine.

<sup>+</sup> Ibid. p. 63-4.

<sup>1</sup> Ibid. p. 72. lin. 5.

great devotion to Paganism, therefore, must needs have been atrended with an equal aversion to Christianity; and it is more than probable, that the oration he speaks of as made in honour of Æsculapius, was in the number of those INVECTIVES, at that time so well received by the enemies of our holy faith. For, not to infift on the fuccess of his oration, which, he tells us, was in every body's hands, a thing common to discourses on subjects that engage the public attention, but rarely the fortune of such stale ware as panegyrics on a God long worn into an establishment; not, I say, to infift upon this, we may observe that Æsculapius was one of those ancient heroes \*, who were employed, by the defenders of Paganism, to oppose to Jesus; and the circumstances of Æsculapius's story made him the fittest of any in fabulous antiquity, for that purpose. Ovid, who lived before these times of danger to the pagan Gods, and indeed, before the coming of that Deliverer who gave occasion to so many impious comparisons, hath yet made Ocbirroe. in contemplation of his future actions, prophefy of him in fuch strains as presented to his excellent Translator the image of the true phylician of mankind; and thereby enabled him to give a fublime to his version, which is not borrowed from his original;

Ergo ubi vaticinos concepit mente furores, Incaluitque Deo, quem clausam pectore habebat; Aspicit infantem, totique salutiser orbi Cresce puer, dixit: tibi se mortalia sæpe Corpora debebunt: animas tibi reddere ademptas Fas erit. Idque semel, dis indignantibus, ausus, Posse dare hoc iterum slamma prohibebere avitå: Eque deo corpus sies exsangue; deusque, Qui modò corpus eras, & bis tua fata novabis.

OVID.

Once as the facred infant she survey'd, The God was kindled in the raving maid,

Justin Martyr. Apol. 2. — στι δι σάλω εμαθοι σχοφητιυθώλα θερατέυσειο αυτόν νόσου, καλ εκυρερώ, τὸ 'Ασκληπιδο σαχένιγκαιο ——See Cyrill. cont. Julian. 1. vi.

And thus she utter'd her prophetic tale:

- "Hail, great physician of the world, all hail;
- "Hail, mighty Infant, who in years to come,
- "Shalt heal the nations and defraud the tomb;
- "Swift be thy growth, thy triumphs unconfin'd
- " Make kingdoms thicker, and increase mankind.
- "Thy daring art shall animate the dead,
- "And draw the thunder on thy guilty head:
- "Then shalt thou die. But from the dark abode
- "Rise up victorious, and be twice a God." ADDISON.

But the Reformers of Paganism having lately resolved all the Popular Gods into the Attributes and Manisestations of the first Cause, Æsculapius bore a very distinguished rank in this new Model. Pausanias tells us, that in Phocis there was a celebrated Temple dedicated to him, where he was worshiped, as the Author and original of all things\*.

Having seen what there was in the common passion of his Sect, and in his own fond mode of superstition, to indispose Apuleius to Christianity; let us inquire what private provocation he might have to prejudice him against it; for, a private provocation, I am persuaded, he had; occasioned by a personal injury done him by one of This profession; which, I suppose, did not a little contribute to exasperate his bigotry. He had married a rich widow, against the good liking of her first husband's Relations; who endeavoured to set aside the marriage on pretence of his employing forcery and enchantments to engage her affections. Of this, he was judicially accused by his wise's brother-in-law, Licinius Æmilianus, before the Procunsul of Africa. Now his Accuser, if I am not much mistaken, was a Christian, though this interesting circumstance hath escaped the notice of his commentators. However, let us hear the

characte<sub>r</sub>

<sup>\*</sup> Εταδίος δι ἀποδίρο Τοθορίας εθδομάνοιλα ναός έγω 'Ασκληπιού, καλείται δι 'Αρχαγέτας. Τομάς δι καρά ἀνδον ίχει Τοθορίων, κὸ ἐπίσης παρά Φωτίων των ἄλλων. Lib. κ. c. κκκίι, pag. 879, Edita Kuhnii, fol. Lipf. 1696.

character Apuleius himself gives of his Party.- "Atqui ego scio nonnullos, et cum primis Æmilianum istum, facetiæ sibi habere res divinas deridere. Nam, ut audio, percensentibus iis qui istum novere, NULLI DEO ad boc ævi supplicavit; nullum templum frequentavit. Si fanum aliquod prætereat, NEFAS HABET ADORANDI GRATIA MANUM LABRIS ADMOVERE. Iste vero nec diis rurationis, qui eum pascunt ac vestiunt, segetis ullas aut vitis aut gregis primitias impartit; nullum in villa ejus delubrum situm, nec locus aut lucus consecratus. At quid ego de luco aut delubro loquor? Negant vidisse se, qui fuere, unum saltem in finibus ejus aut lapidem unctum, aut ramum coronatum. Igitur agnomenta ei duo indita: Charon, ob oris et animi diritatem: sed alterum, quod LIBENTIUS AUDIT, ob deorum contemptum, Mezentius \*." And now let us see how this agrees with what Arnobius tells us, the Pagans objected to his Sect-" In hac enim consuestis parte crimen nobis maximum impietatis affigere, quod neque ædes sacras venerationis ad Officia construamus, nec Deorum alicujus simulacrum constituamus, aut formam: non altaria fabricenus, non aras, non cæsorum sanguinem animantium demus, non tura, non frugas salsas, non denique vinum liquens paterarum effusionibus inferamus. Quæ quidem nos cessamus non ideo vel exædificare, vel facere tanquam impias geramus & scelerosas mentes, aut aliquem sumpserimus temeraria in Deos desperatione CONTEMPTUM: sed quod, &c. +" Again, where Apuleius apostrophises his Adversary in another place, he says, agreeably to the Character before given of him-si QUID CREDIS. Æmiliane!! and again, after explaining a spiritual doctrine of Plato, he adds with a sneer-attamen si audire VERUM velis, Æmiliane §! But the repetition of this characteristic word with an ironical emphasis in his constant formula when he addresses Æmilianus, longe a vero aberrasse necesse habeat consiteri ||---Immo fi verum velis \*\* --- plane quidem fi verum velis ++. irreligion and atheism, we know, were the names Christianity at

<sup>\*</sup> Apol. p. 64, 5. † Arnob. adver. Gentes. L. vii. sub init. ‡ P. 26. § P. 14. | P. 77. \*\* P. 98. †† P. 108.

that time went by, for having dared to renounce the whole family of the gentile Gods together. To this opprobrium, Origen alludes, when he retorts it on Polytheism, in this elegant mannerοί τειὶ ἀγαλμάτων λ της ΑΘΕΟΥ τολυθεότηρος. Æmilianus we see had made fuch clear work, that there was not so much as an anointed stone, or a tree adorned with consecrated garlands, to be found throughout his whole Farm. That the Atheism of Æmilianus was of this fort, and no courtly or philosophic impiety, appears from his Character and Station. He was neither a fine Gentleman, nor a profound Inquirer into nature; characters indeed which are fometimes found to be above Religion; but a mere Rustic, in his life and manners. Now plain, unpolifhed men, in such a condition of life, are never without some Religion or other: When therefore, we find Æmilianus not of the established, we must needs conclude him to be a Sectary and a Christian. 2. His neglect of his country Gods was not a mere negative affront of forgetfulness. He gloried in being their despiser; and took kindly to the name of MEZENTIUS, as a title of honour-alterum, quod libentius audit, ob deorum contemptum, Mezentius, which I would confider as a further mark of a Christian, convict. 3. He even held it an abomination fo much as to put his hand to his lips, (according to the mode of adoration in those times) when he passed by an Heathen Temple; nefas habet, adorandi gratia, manum labris admovere, the most characteristic mark of a primitive Confessor, by which he could never be mistaken; nor, one would think, so long overlooked \*. 4. By the frequent and farcastical repetition of the word verum, Apuleius feems to fneer at that general title which the Faithful gave their Religion, of THE TRUTH.

Æmilianus, it seems, had mis-represented a little image of Mercury, which Apuleius used to carry about with him, as a squalid magical figure. On which occasion the Accused, in great rage, deprecates his Accuser—" At tibi, Æmiliane, pro isto mendacio, duat Deus

<sup>\*</sup> See note EE, at the end of this Book.

iste, Superum & Inferum commeator utrorumque Deorum malam gratiam, semperque obvias species mortuorum, quidquid Umbrarum est usquam, quidquid Lemurum, quidquid Manium, quidquid Larvarum, oculis tuis oggerat: Omnia nottium occursacula, omnia Bustorum formidamina, omnia sepulcrorum terriculamenta."—This was the common curse and supposed to be the common punishment of impiety and Atheism. But it has here a peculiar elegance as denounced against Æmilianus. The Busta, or Repository of dead bodies, so abhorred by the Pagans, were the very places in which the Christians assembled for nocturnal Worship.

The aversion, therefore, which Apuleius had contracted to his Christian accuser, (and we see, by what is here said, it was in no ordinary degree) would without doubt increase his prejudice to that Religion. I am persuaded he gave the Character of the Baker's wife, in his Golden Ass, for no other reason than to outrage our holy faith. Having drawn her stained with all the vices that could deform a Woman; to finish all, he makes her a Christian. --- " Nec " enim vel unum vitium nequissimæ ille feminæ deerat: sed omnia " prorsus, ut in quandam coenosam latrinam, in ejus animam flagi-46 tia confluxerant, sæva, viriosa, ebriosa, pervicax, in rapinis tur-66 pibus avara, in sumptibus sœdis profusa: inimica sidei, hostis 66 pudicitiæ. Tunc spretis atque calcatis divinis numinibus, IN VICEM 66 CERTÆ RELIGIONIS MENTITA SACRILEGA PRÆSUMPTIONE DEI, "QUEM PRÆDICARET UNICUM, CONFICTIS OBSERVATIONIBUS, " VACUIS, fallens omnes homines, &c. \*" So again in the fourth book, describing certain magnific Shews exhibited to the people by one Demochares; when he comes to speak of the criminals thrown to wild-beasts, he expresses himself in this manner: ---- Alibi noxii, PERDITA SECURITATE, suis epulis bestiarum saginas instruentes [p. 72.] The Oxf. MS. for securitate reads severitate: on which Price observes, ego nec hoc nec illud intellectum habee. Apuleius by noxii apparently meant the condemned Christians; and perdita securitate, which is the true reading, censures either their reasonable hope of a happy immortality, or their false considence that the beasts would not hurt them.

Let us fee now how this would influence his writings. There was nothing the Philosophers of that time had more at heart, especially the Platonists and Pythagoreans, than the support of sinking Paganism. This service, as hath been occasionally remarked, they performed in various ways and manners: some by allegorizing their Theology; some by spiritualizing their Philosophy; and some, as Jamblicus and Philostratus, by writing the lives of their Heroes, to oppose to that of Christ; others again, as Porphyry, with this view collected their oracles; or as Melanthius, Menander, Hicesius, and Sotades, wrote descriptive encomiums on their Mysteries. Which last, as we shall now shew, was the province undertaken by Apuleius; his Metamorphosis being nothing else but one continued recommendation of them.

But to give what we have to say it's proper force; let us, 1. enquire into the motives our Author might have for entering at all into the defence of Paganism: 2. His reasons for chusing this topic of desence, the recommendation of the Mysteries.

- 1. As to his defence of paganism in general, we may observe,
  1. That works of this kind were very much in fashion, especially
  amongst the Philosophers of our author's Sect. 2. He was, as we have
  seen, most superstitiously devoted to pagan worship: and, 3. He
  bore a personal spite and prejudice to the Christian profession.
- 2. As to his making the defence of the Mysteries his choice, still stronger reasons may be assigned. 1. These were the Rites to which he was so peculiarly devoted, that he had contrived to be initiated into all the Mysteries of note, in the Roman world; and in several of them had borne the most distinguished offices. 2. The Mysteries being at this time become extremely corrupt, and consequently, in discredit, needed an able and zealous Apologist: both of which qualities met eminently in Apuleius. The corruptions were of two kinds,

kinds, Debaucheries and Magic. The Debaucheries we have taken notice of, above: their Magic will be considered hereafter. But, 3. Our author's close attachment to Mysterious rites was, without question, the very thing that occasioned all those suspicions and reports, which ended in an accusation of Magic: And, considering what hath been said of the corrupt state of the Mysteries, the reader will not wonder that it should.

Such then being the general character of the Mysteries, and of this their great Devotee, nothing was more natural than his proiecting their defence; which, at the same time that it concurred to the support of Paganism in general, would vindicate his own credit, together with an Institution of which he was so immoderately fond. And the following confiderations are sufficient to shew, that the Mesamorphofis was written after his Apology: for, 1. His accufers never once mention the fable of the Golden Ass to support their charge of Magic, though they were in great want of proofs, and this lay so ready for their purpose. For, we are not to suppose that he alludes to the Metamorphosis in the following words of the Apology, --- Aggredior enim jam ad ipsum crimen Magia, quod ingenti tumultu, ad invidiam mei, accenfum, frustrata expectatione omnium, per nescio quas anileis fabulas deflagravit. p. 29, 30. The idle tales here hinted at, are the gossiping stories which went about of him, and which he afterwards exposes in the course of this 2. He positively asserts before the tribunal of Maximus Claudius that he had never given the least occasion to suspect him of Magic: " Nusquam passus sum vel exiguam suspicionem magiæ " consistere \*."

Now Antiquity considered INITIATION INTO THE MYSTERIES as a delivery from a living death of vice, brutality, and misery; and the beginning of a new life of virtue, reason, and happiness +. This, therefore, was the very circumstance which our Author chose for the subject of his recommendation.

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<sup>\*</sup> P. 100, lin 11.

<sup>†</sup> See what hath been said above, in the discourse of the Mysteries.

And as in the Mysteries, their moral and divine truths' were represented in shews and allegories, so, in order to comply with this method of instruction, and in imitation of the ancient Masters of wisdom \*, who borrowed their manner of teaching from thence, he hath artfully infinuated his doctrine in an agreeable Fable; and the fittest, one could conceive for his purpose, as will be seen when we come to examine it.

The foundation of this Allegory was a Milefian Fable, a species of polite trifling then much in vogue, and not unlike the modern Arabian tales. To allure his readers, therefore, with the promise of a fashionable work, he introduces his Metamorphosis in this manner: At ego tibi sermone isto Milesto varias fabulas conseram, AURES-QUE TUAS benevolas lepido susurro PERMULCEAM; plainly intimating that there was something of more consequence at bottom. the fashionable people took him at his word; and, from that day to this, never troubled their heads about a further meaning. The OUTSIDE engaged all their attention, and sufficiently delighted them; as we may gather from the early title it bore of Asinus Aureus. And, from the beginning of one of Pliny's epiftles, I suspect that AUREÆ was the common title given to the Milesian, and such like tales as Strolers used to tell for a piece of money to the rabble in a circle. Pliny's words are these-assem para, et accipe AUREAM fabulam +. Unless we will rather suppose it to have been bestowed by the few intelligent readers in the fecret; for, in spite of the Author's repeated preparation, a secret it was, and so, all along continued.

Upon one of these popular Fables, he chose to ingraft his instruction; taking a celebrated Tale from the collections of one

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<sup>\*</sup> Strabo acquaints us with the inducements which the ancients had to practice this method of Instruction.—" Oran di wiosh w to danuard w to tequation, iwiline the adore, have the it to markine platen. Kalagyas pie in anayan toutens dienam yehodan agencion, di the idulas in the too olden pathene ayen, ho to danuar ifination, w partite despites nodanes. Kal idultes di wis the too olden, technology, the too olden. Kal idultes di wis in anait, despites, the too olden. Kal idultes di wis in danuar. Geog. 1. i. p 19. A. Edit. Paris. fol. 1620.

† I. ii. Ep. 20.

Lucius of Patræ; who relates his transformation into an Ass, and his adventures under that shape. Lucian has epitomised this story. as Apuleius seems to have paraphrased it: and the subject being a METAMORPHOSIS, it admirably fitted his purpose; as the METEMPsychosis, to which that superstition belongs, was one of the fundamental doctrines of the Mysteries. But from Photius's account of Lucius Patrensis one would be inclined to rank him amongst those who composed books of Metamorphosis [see B. iii. Sect. 3.] according to the popular Theology, rather than a writer of Milesian fables. He entitles Lucius's work με αμορφώσεως λόγοι διάφοροι. And after having faid that Lucian borrowed his As from thence, to ridicule pagan religion, he goes on \*; " but Lucius giving a more ferious turn to his Metamorphofis, and treating as realities thefe changes of Men into one another, of Men into Beafts, and so on the contrary, hath weaved together these and many other of the trifles and abfurdities of the Ancient Mythology, and committed them to writing for the entertainment of the Public." This will account for the oddness of Apuleius's expressions, with which he introduces his Fable—Et figuras fortunasque hominum in alias imagines conversas et in se rursum mutuo nexu resectas, ut miseris, exordior, --- words by no means fuiting with the fingle transformation, and story of the golden ass, but very expressive of the nature of fuch a work as that of Lucius Patrenfis, according to the idea which Photius gives us of it. From whence I conclude, that Apuleius might translate these very words from his original author.

The Fable opens with the representation of a young man, perfonated by himself, sensible of the advantages of virtue and piety, but immoderately fond of PLEASURE, and as curious of MAGIC. Apuleius takes care to keep up the first part of this character as he

<sup>\*</sup> δ δι Λεχίο; στυλίζου τι, η πισάς κομίζου τὰς ἐξ ακθρύπων εἰς ἀλλάλως μεθαμορφύσεις, τάς τε ἐξ ἀλύγου ἱι; ἀιθρύτως, η ἀιάναλιο η τὸν ἄλλου τῶν ΠΑΛΑΙΩΝ ΜΥΘΩΝ ἔθλου ης φλέναφον γραφέ παριδίδυ ταῦτα, η συνύμαιου. Bibl. Ed. Gen. p. 311.

goes along, familiaris CURIOSITATIS admonitus, 1. iii. familiari CU-RIOSITATE attonitus, 1. ix. And Curiosus and Magus were used by the Antients as Synonymous. So Apuleius himself.—At ego CURIOSUS alioquin, ut primum ARTIS MAGICÆ semper optatum nomen audivi, p. 24. Hence it is that he is represented as having been initiated in all the corrupt Mysteries, where Magic was professedly practifed. Fotis, the inferior Priestess in the magic rites of the Inchantress, Pampbile, enjoining him silence, says, sucris pluribus initiatus, profecto nôsti sanctam silentii sidem \*. As to the second. we have his adventure with Byrrhena and Pampbile, which feems to be borrowed from Prodicus's fable of the contest between Virtue and Pleasure for the young Hercules. Byrrhena meets our adventurer, pretends to be his relation +, and tells him that she brought him up from his infancy: by which is intimated that virtue was most natural to him. She leads him home to her house, which is described as a magnificent palace: one of its principal ornaments is the history of Diana; where the punishment of Actaon is not forgotten §, as a seasonable lesson against vicious curiosity. And to keep him to herfelf, she promises to make him heir of all her fortunes. Then taking him apart, she warns him to beware of the mischievous practices of his hostess Pamphile. "Per hanc, inquit, "Deam (Dianam) ô Luci carissime, ut anxie tibi metuo, et, utpote " pignori meo, longe provifum cupio, cave tibi, sed cave fortiter, a " malis artibus, et facinorosis illecebris Pamphiles illius, MAGA 66 primi nominis, et omnis carminis sepulcralis magistra creditur: 46 quæ surculis et lapillis, et id genus frivolis inhalatis, omnem istant " lucem mundi sideralis imis Tartari, et in vetustum chaos submer-

<sup>\*</sup> P. 53.

<sup>†</sup> Ego te, o Luci, meis istis manibus educavi: quidni? parentis tuz non modo sanguinis, verum alimoniarum etiam socia sui, p. 23.

<sup>‡</sup> Ecce lapis Parius in Dianam factus tenet libratum totius loci medietatem, fignum perfecte luculentum,—introcuntibus obvium, & majestate numinis venerabile, &c. p. 22.

<sup>§</sup> Inter medias frondes lapidis Actaonis simulacrum, curioso obtutu in dorsum projectus, &c. p. 23.

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" gere novit. Nam cum quemquam conspexerit speciosæ formæ i juvenem, venustate ejus sumitur: et illico, &c."

But Lucius makes a choice very different from that of Hercules. He had promifed to observe Byrrbena's admonitions, and to return to her again: but a circumstance of immoderate mirth intervening, he found in himself a more than ordinary aversion to keep his word. Ad hæc ego formidans et procul perhorrescens etiam ipsam domum ejus, &c. \* This is a fine circumstance, nothing being so great an enemy to modesty and chastity (figured in the person of Byrrhena) as immoderate mirth. He gives a loose to his vicious appetite for Pleasure and Magic: and the crimes and follies into which they lead him soon ends in his transformation to a Brure.

This contrivance of the introductory part is artful; and finely infinuates the great moral of the piece, THAT BRUTALITY ATTENDS VICE AS IT'S PUNISHMENT: and punishment by actual transformation was keeping up to the popular opinion. His making a passion for Magic contribute to this dreadful change is no less ingenious, as it cleared both himself and the Mysteries from that imputation; for it appeared that Magic was so far from being innocent, that in his opinion, it was attended with the severest punishment; so far from being encouraged by the Mysteries, that they only could relieve men from the distresses which this vicious curiosity brought upon it's votaries; as is shewn by the catastrophe of the Piece.

St. Austin permitted himself to doubt whether Apuleius's account of his change into an Ass was not a true relation.—Sicut Apuleius, in libris quos Afini aurei titulo inscripfit, sibi ipsi accidisse, ut accepta veneno, bumano animo permanente, asinus sieret, AUT INDICAVIT aut sinxit. I shall say nothing to so extravagant a doubt, but only observe, that it appears from hence, that St. Austin esteemed Apuleius a profligate in his manners, and addicted to the super-

Book II.

<sup>\*</sup> P. 51. + See B. iii. Sect. 3. [ 1 Civ. Dei, 1. aviii. c. 18.

stitions of Magic. And yet it is by no means credible, that he who took so much pains, in a very serious and public way \*, to free himself from these imputations, should afterwards wantonly undo all he had so successfully performed in support of a doubtful reputation, by an unnecessary narrative of his own early debaucheries. But it may be faid, that all this happened in his youth; and that his subsequent Initiations had purified his manners: But neither will his Apology admit of this supposition; for there he expresly insists on the virtue of his youth. "De eloquentia vero, 46 si qua mihi fuisset, neque mirum, neque invidiosum deberet videri, si ab ineunte avo unis studiis litterarum ex summis viribus " deditus, omnibus aliis spretis voluptatibus ad boc ævi, haud 4 sciam anne super omneis homines impenso labore, diuque noctu-" que, cum despectu et dispendio bonæ valetudinis, eam quæsissem "-Quis enim me hoc quidem pacto eloquentior vivat? quippe 44 qui nihil unquam cogitavi quod eloqui non auderem. Eundem " me aio facundissimum; nam omne peccatum semper nefas habui. 4 Eundem disertissimum; quod nullum meum factum vel dictum " extet, de quo disserere publice non possim +." What have we then to conclude but that the representation of himself in this Fuble, under a debauched character, is entirely feigned? Yet still it would be as abfurd to imagine that a grave and moral Philosopher thould chuse to exhibit himself to the public in the odious, and false light of a Magician and Debauchee; and take a pleasure in dwelling upon the horrors of to detestable a Character, for no other purpose than to amuse and entertain a set of dissolute readers. We must needs therefore go a step further, and conclude that he assumed it only for the fake of the GENERAL MORAL, and the better to carry on his Allegory; which was, to recommend the MYSTERIES as the certain cure for all the DISORDERS OF THE WILL.

This being his end, he was but too much encouraged by the example of the most moral of the ancient Satirists, to particularize

<sup>\*</sup> His Apology.

the various maladies to which he was applying a remedy. Let this, and his copying only what he found in his original Author, stand for some kind of excuse in a wretched Pagan; and it is the best we have, for all the obscenities with which his Fable abounds.

But to proceed with his plan. Having now shewn himself thoroughly brutalized by his crimes; he goes on to reprefent at large the mileries of that condition, in a long detail of his misadventures; in the course of which he fell, by turns, under the dominion of every vicious passion; though the incidents are chiefly confined to the mischiefs of unlawful love: And this, with much judgment, as one of the principal ends of the Mufteries was to curb and subdue this inordinance, which brings more general and lasting misery upon Mankind than all the other. And as it was the great moral of his piece to shew that pure religion (such as a platonic Philosopher esteemed pure) was the only remedy for human corruption; so, to prevent the abuse or mistake of this capital Principle, he takes care to inform us, that an attachment to superstitious and corrupt Religion does but plunge the wretched victim into still greater miseries. This he finely illustrates, in the history of his adventures with the BEGGING PRIESTS OF CYBELE, whose enormities are related in the eighth and ninth books; and whose corrupt Mysteries are intended as a contrast to the PURE RITES OF ISIS: With which, in a very studied description and encomium, he concludes the Fable.

In the mean time, matters growing from bad to worse, and Lucius plunged deeper and deeper in the sink of vice, his affairs come to a criss. For this is one great beauty in the conduct of the Fable, that every change of station, while he remains a brute, makes his condition still more wretched and deplorable. And being now (in the ninth book) about to perpetrate one of the most shocking enormities; NATURF, though so deeply brutalized, REVOLTS; he abhors the idea of his projected crime; he evades his keepers; he slies to the sea-shore; and, in this solitude, begins to restect more seriously on his lost condition. This is finely imagined; for

we often see men, even after a whole life of horrors, come suddenly to themselves on the hideous aspect of some Monster-vice too frightful even for an hardened Reprobate to bear. Nor is it with less judgment that the Author makes these beginnings of reformation confirmed by solitude; when the unhappy victim of PLEASURE hath broken loose from the companions and partakers of his sollies.

And now, a more intimate acquaintance with his hopeless condition obliges him to fly to Heaven for relief. The MOON is in full fplendour; and the awful filence of the night inspires him with fentiments of Religion.—" Video præmicantis Lunæ candore nimio 66 completum orbem, -nactusque opacæ noctis silentiosa secreta, " certus etiam summatem Deam præcipua majestate pollere, res-" que prorsus humanas ipsius regi providentia, etc "." He then purifies himself in the manner prescribed by PYTHAGORAS+; the Philosopher most addicted to Initiations of all the early Sages, as Apuleius, of all the later; and fo makes his prayer to the Moon or Isis; invoking her by her several names of the Eleusinian Ceres. the celestial Venus, Diana and Proserpine: when betaking himself to repose, she appears to him in a dream I. This was not a circumstance of the Fabulist's mere invention. Pausanias tells us "that in Phocis there was a Chapel confecrated to Itis, of all the 44 places of worship, which the Greeks erected to this Egyptian "Goddess, by far the most holy: that to this sacred place it was 65 not lawful for any to approach, but such whom the Goddess had

<sup>\*</sup> P. 238.

<sup>+ -</sup> meque protinus, purificandi studio, marino lavacro trado: septiesque submerso studibus capite, quod eum numerum præcipue religioni aptissimum divinus ille Pythagoras prodidit-p. 238.

<sup>‡</sup> Artemidorus says, that for a man to dream that Ceres, Proserpine, or Bacchus appears to him, betokens some extraordinary good fortune to happen to him. Δεμάτας εξ Κόξη εξ δ λεγόμετος "ΙακχΦ- τοῦς μεμουμέτος ταῖς θεαῖς ἀγαθόν τι εξ ὰ τὸ τέχον ἐσόμετον συμαιουνίο. l. iv. c. 44. The ancient onirocritics, as we have observed, B. iv. Sect. 4. were not founded on the arbitrary fancies of the impostors who professed that art, but on the customs and superstitions of the times, and with a principal reference to the Egyptian Hieroclyphics and Mysteries.

"invited, and appeared to, in a Dream, for that purpose "." Here she appears under the SHINING IMAGE so much spoken of by the Mystics, as representing the divine nature in general +. " Necdum " satis conniveram: et ecce pelago medio, venerandos Diis etiam " vultus attollens, emergit divina facies, ac dehinc paulatim toto " corpore PER LUCIDUM SIMULACRUM, excusso pelago, ante me " constitisse visum est. Ejus mirandam speciem ad vos etiam re-" ferre connitar-Corona multiformis, variis floribus sublimem dis-"tinxerat verticem: cujus media quidem super fronte plana rotun-44 ditas, candidum lumen emicabat. Dextra lævaque fulcis insurgen-" tium viperarum cohibita, spicis etiam Cerealibus desuper porrectis. -- Et quæ longe longeque etiam meum confutabat obtutum, palla " nigerrima, splendescens atro nitore; quæ circum circa remeans,--er per intextam extremitatem, et in ipsa oræ planitie, stellæ dispersæ s corufcabant: earumque media semestris Luna slammeos spirabat " ignes. - Dextera quidem ferebat æreum crepitaculum: cujus per an-" gustam laminam in modum balthei recurvatam, trajectæ mediæ 6 paucæ virgulæ, crispante brachio tergeminos jactus, reddebant, " argutum fonitum ‡." These several symbolic Attributes, the lucid Round, the fnakes, the ears of corn, and the fiftrum, represent the tutelar Deities of the Hecataean, Baccbic, Eleufinian and Isiae Mysteries. That is, mystic rites in general; for whose take the allegory was invented. As the black Palla in which the is wrapped, embroidered with a filver-moon, and stars, denotes the . TIME, in which the Mysteries were celebrated, namely the dead of NIGHT; which was fo constant and inseparable a circumstance, that the author calls initiation. NOCTIS SOCIETAS.

In her speech to Lucius she gives this extraordinary account of herself, "En assum, tuis commota Luci precibus, KERUM NATURA

<sup>&</sup>quot; ΤΟ δι 'Ασκλατιό στε τισσαμάκοιλα ἀπίγρι ς αδίας σεμίδλος, κὰ ἄδιδα ἰκεὸ "Ισιδος ἀγιώlalor ἐπόσα "Ελλατις θιῷ τῷ 'Αἰγυπίζα σεποίωλαι. Οῦτε γας σεριομέτε διλαίδα οἱ Τιθοραιιές τομέζευστε,

μτε Ισοδος ἐς τὸ ἀδιδιο ἀλλοις γε ἡ ἐκεόνος ἐςὰν, ῶς ἀναίδη σρόθμήσασα ἡ Ισις καλέση σφας δι ἐινπίωτε.

Lib. x. c. 32. p. 880. Edit, Kuhnii, Lipí, fol. 1696.

<sup>†</sup> See above, p. 283. note (1.)

<sup>1</sup> P. 239, 240.

## SECT. 4. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED. 321

" PARENS, elementorum omnium Domina, fæculorum progenics "initialis, Summa numinum, Regina manium, Prima cœlitum, " Deorum Dearumque facies uniformis: quæ cœli luminosa culmina, " maris salubria flamina, inferorum deplorata silentia nutibus meis " dispenso. Cujus numen unicum, multiformi specie, ritu vario, " nomine multijugo totus veneratur orbis-priscaque doctrina pol-" lentes ÆGYPTII, ceremoniis me prorsus PROPRIIS percolentes, "appellant vero nomine reginam ISIDEM "." This was exactly adapted to the defign of the Mysteries; and preparatory to the communication of the ANOPPHTA. It had likewise this further use, to patch up and recommend the PAGAN RELIGIONS; by shewing that their Polytheism consisted in nothing else than in giving the SUPREME GOD various NAMES, merely expressive of his various ATTRIBUTES. This was the fashionable colouring, which, after the appearance of Christianity, the advocates of paganism employed to blanch their IDOLATRY. I will only observe further, that the words, Ægyptii ceremoniis me prorsus propriis percolentes, infinuate, what was true, that all MYSTERIOUS WORSHIP came first from ÆGYPT; this people having penetrated furthest into the nature of the Gods: As the calling HER, who represents the Mysteries in general, RERUM NATURA PARENS, shews plainly what were the ANOPPHTA of them all.

PARENT NATURE then reveals to Lucius the means of his recovery. Her festival was on the following day; when there was to be a Procession of her Votaries. The Priest who led it up (she told him) would have a chaplet of Roses in his hand, which had the virtue to restore him to his former shape. But as breaking through a habit of vice is, of all things, the most difficult; she adds encouragements to her promises, "nee quidquam rerum mearum reformides, ut arduum. Nam hoc eodem momento, quo tibi venio, simul et ibi PRÆSENS, quæ sunt consequentia sacerdoti meo per quietem sacienda præcipio †." Alluding to what was taught in

\* P. 241.

† P. 242.

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the Mysteries, that the assistance of Heaven was always present to second the efforts of virtue. But in return for the favour of releasing him from his brutal shape, i. e. of reforming his manners by Initiation, she tells him she expected the service of his whole life; And this, the Mysteries required: Nor should her service (she said) go unrewarded, for he should have a place in Elysum hereaster; And this, too, the Mysteries promised. "Plane memineris, et penita mente conditum semper tenebis, mibi reliqua vitæ tuæ curricula, ad usque terminos ultimi spiritus vadata. Nec injurium, cujus benesicio redieris ad homines ei totum debere quod vives. Vives autem beatus, vives, in mea tutela, gloriosus: et cum spatium seculi tui permensus ad inferos demearis; ibi quoque in ipso sub-terraneo semirotundo, me, quam vides Acherontis tenebris inter-se lucentem, stygiisque penetralibus regnantem, campos Elysios sincolens ipse, tibi propitiam frequens adorabis."

Lucius is at length confirmed in his resolution of aspiring to a life of virtue. And on this change of his dispositions, and intire conquest of his passions, the Author finely represents all Nature as putting on a new face of chearfulness and gaiety. "Tanta hilaritudine præter peculiarem meam gestire mihi cuncta videbantur; ut pecua etiam cujuscemodi, et totas domos, et ipsum diem serena facie gaudere sentirem +." And to enjoy Nature, in these her best conditions, was the boasted privilege of the Initiated, as we may see from a Chorus in the Frogs of Aristophanes.

And now the Procession, in honour of Isis, begins. Where by the way, we must observe, that the *two first days* of the celebration of the *Eleusinian Mysteries* are plainly described: the one called ATTPMOE, from the multitude assembled; the other AAAE MYETAI, from the Procession made to the sea-shore. "Tunc instrumt

# P. 242. 1 Mότοις γὰρ ἄμιῖ ἄλιΦ. Kal ΦίγγΦ làngir iru "Oσοι μιμυημιθ"—Act. i.

† P. 243.

"Turbæ sacris divinis initiatæ "- jam ripam maris proximamus +." The Priest or Hierophant of the Rites leads up the train of the Initiated with a garland of Roses in his hand. Lucius approaches, devours the Roses, and, according to the promise of the Goddess, is restored to his native Form: by which, as we have said, no more was meant than a change of Manners, from vice to virtue. And this the author plainly intimates by making the Goddess thus address him under his brutal Figure, " pessimæ milique detesta-61 bilis jamdudum beluæ istius corio te protinus exue 1." For an Ass was so far from being detestable, that it was employed in the celebration of her rites; and was ever found in the retinue of Osiris or Bacchus. The garland plainly represents that which the aspirants were crowned with at their initiation: just as the virtue of the Roses designs the Mysteries. At his transformation he had been told, that Roses were to restore him to Humanity: so that, amid' all his adventures, he had still this remedy in view. Particularly in a circumstance of great distress, he met with a species of them called rosa laurea; but on examining its properties, he found that, instead of a restorative, it was a deadly poison to all kind of cattle-" quarum cuncto pecori cibus lethalis est." Who can doubt then. but by this rose-laurel was meant all debauched, magical, and corrupt Mysteries, such as those of the SYRIAN GODDESS, whose Ministers he represents in so abominable a light §; in opposition to what he calls "fobriæ religionis observatio:" and in those Rites, initiation was fo far from promoting a life of virtue, that it plunged the deluded Votary into still greater miseries. These emblematic Roses were not of our author's invention. For the ROSE, amongst the Ancients, was a symbol of SILENCE, the requisite quality of the Initiated. And therefore the statues of Isis or Diana Multimammea, (images confecrated to the use of the Mysteries) are crowned with chaplets of Roses; designing what we now mean, when we say, in proverbial speech, UNDER THE ROSE.

\* P. 245. † P. 249. † P. 242. § L. vili. p. 174.
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Our Author proceeds to tell us, that the people wondered at this instantaneous Metamorphosis. Populi mirantur, religiosi venerantur tam evidentem maximi numinis potentiam—et facilitatem resormationis\*. For the Mysteries boasted the power of giving a sudden and entire change to the mind and affections: And the advocates of Paganism against Christianity used to oppose this boast to the real and miraculous efficacy of Grace.

As foon as Lucius had recovered the integrity of his nature, by initiation, the Priest covers him, naked as he was, with a LINEN garment +: A habit always bestowed upon the Aspirant, on his admission to the Mysteries; the rationale of which, Apuleius himself gives us in his Apology ‡.

When all was over, the Priest accosts his Penitent in the sollowing manner. "Multis et variis exantlatis laboribus, magnissi que Fortunæ tempestatibus, et maximis actis procellis, ad portum quietis et aram Misericordiæ tandem, Lucî, venisti: nec tibi nateles, ac ne dignitas quidem vel ipsa, qua flores, usquam doctrina profuit: sed lubrico virentis ætatulæ, ad serviles delapsus voluptates, curiositatis improsperæ sinistrum præmium reportâsti. Sed utrinque Fortunæ cæcitas dum te pessimis periculis discrutiat, ad religiosam istam babitudinem improvida produxit malitia. Eat nunc, et summo surore sæviat, et crudelitati suæ materiam quærat aliam. Nam in eorum vitas, quorum sibi servitium Deæ nostræ majestas vindicavit, non babet locum casus insessus. Quid latrones, quid feræ, quid servitium, quid asperrimorum itinerum ambages reciprocæ, quid metus mortis quotidianæ nesariæ Fortunæ prosuit?

<sup>\*</sup> P. 247, 248.

<sup>+</sup> Sed sacerdos, utcunque divino monitu cognitis ab origine cunstis cladibus meis, quamquam et ipse insigni permotus miraculo, nutu significato prius præcipit, tegendo mihi LINTEAM dari LACINIAM. P. 248.

Lana segnissimi corporis excrementum, pecori detracts, jam inde Orphei et Pythagoræ scitis, profanus vestitus est. Sed énim mundissima Lini seges, inter optimas fruges terræ exerta non modo indutui et amichui sanchissimis Ægyptiorum sacerdotibus, sed opertui quoque in rebus sacris usurpatur. Apol. p. 64. l. 17.

- 44 in tutelam jam receptus es FORTUNE, sed VIDENTIS; que SUE
- 46 LUCIS SPLENDORE ceteros etiam deos illuminat. Sume jam vultum
- 44 lætiorem, candido isto babitu tuo congruentem; comitare pompam
- "Deæ sospitatricis innovanti gradu; videant irreligiosi:
- " VIDBANT, ET ERROREM SUUM RECOGNOSCANT. En ecce prid-
- " tinis ærumnis absolutus, Isidis magnæ PROVIDENTIA gaudens
- " Lucius de sua fortuna triumphat "."

Here the MORAL OF THE FABLE is delivered in plain terms; and, in this moral, all we have advanced, concerning the purpose of the work, fully confirmed. It is expressly declared, that VICE and inordinate CURIOSITY were the causes of Lucius's disasters; from which the only relief was INITIATION into the MYSTERIES. Whereby the Author would infinuate, that nothing was more abhorrent from those holy rites than DEBAUCHERY and MAGIC; the two enormities they were then commonly suspected to encourage.

It hath been observed above, that by Lucius's return to his proper Form, was meant his initiation; and accordingly, that return is called (as initiation was) the being born again—ut RENATUS quodammodo, and—sua providentia quodammodo RENATOS; but this was only to the LESSER, not the GREATER mysteries. The first was to purify the mind: hence it was called by the Ancients, Kaxias aquipeou, a separation from evil: the second was to enlighten it, when purified, and to bring it to the knowledge of divine secrets, as Hierocles speaks, επεία επιδάλλει τη των θειδέρων γνώσει. Hence they named the one KAΘAPΣIN, and the other TEAEIOTHTA, PURIFICATION and PERFECTION. The sirst is here represented in the incident of Lucius's being restored to humanity by the use of roses: The second, as the matter of chief importance, the Author treats more circumstantially.

He begins with making the Priest take occasion, from the benefit already received, to press Lucius to enter into the GREATER MYSTERIES of Isis. "Quo tibi tamen tutior sis, atque munitior;

" da nomen huic sancta militia, cujus olim sacramento etiam læta-66 beris; teque jam nunc obsequio religionis nostræ dedica, et minis-44 terii jugum subi voluntarium. Nam, cum cæperis Deæ servire, " tunc magis senties fructum tuæ libertatis"." But at the same time makes him inform the Candidate, that nothing was to be precipitated: for that not only many previous Rites and Ceremonies, concerning religious diet, and abstinence from prophane food, were to be observed; but that the Aspirants to these bigher Mysteries were to wait for A CALL. "Quippe cum aviditati contumaciæque summe cavere, et utramque culpam vitare, ac neque vocatus morari, nec " non jussus festinare deberem. Nec tamen esse quemquam de suo " numero tam perditæ mentis, vel immo destinatæ mortis, qui non " sibi quoque seorsum, jubente Domina, temerarium atque sacrile-"gum audeat ministerium subire, noxamque letalem contrahere. "Nam et infêrum claustra, et salutis tutelam in Deze manu posita " ipsamque traditionem ad instar voluntariæ mortis et præcariæ sa-" lutis celebrari +." Accordingly, he is initiated into the GREATER MYSTERIES. The ceremony is described at large 1; and we find it to agree exactly with what, we have shewn, other ancient writers more profesfedly deliver concerning it.

The Author, by the doubts and apprehensions which retarded his initiation, first gives us to understand, that the highest degree of sanctity was required of those who entered into the Mysteries.—
"At ego, quamquam cupienti voluntate præditus, tamen religiosa formidine retinebar. Quod enim sedulo percontaveram, difficile religionis obsequium, et castimoniorum abstinentiam satis arduam, cautoque circumspettu vitam, quæ multis casibus subjacet, esse muniendam §." These difficulties now surmounted, he is initiated with the accustomed Ceremonies. He then makes his Prayer, in which the grand Assorbeth of the Mysteries is still || more plainly re-

P. 249. † P. 253, 254. † P. 255, 256, 257. § P. 252. See the quotation above.—Fortune Videntis, que sue lucis splendore ceteros etiam Deos illuminat.

ferred to. "Tu quidem fancta et humani generis sospitate:x per"petua, semper fovendis mortalibus munifica, dulcem matris af"fectionem miserorum casibus tribuis.—Te superi colunt; ob"servant inferi; tu rotas orbem; luminas solem; regis
"mundum; calcas tartarum; tibi respondent sidera#;
"Gaudent lumina; redeunt tempora; serviunt ele"menta; tuo nutu spirant plamina; nutriuntur nu"bila; germinant semina; crescunt germina; tuam
"majestatem perhorrescunt aves coelo meantes; peræ
"montibus errantes; serpentes solo latentes; beluæ
"ponto natantes;"

The affair thus over, and the honour attendant on initiation into the greater Mysteries being marked out in the words—cominabar sacrarium; tota civitati notus ac conspicuus, digitis hominum nutibusque notabilis; the Author, in the next place, takes occasion, agreeably to his real practice and opinions, to recommend a MULTIPLICITY OF INITIATIONS. He tells us how Isis counselled him to enter into the Mysteries of Osiris: how, after that, she invited him to a third initiation: and then rewarded him for his accumulated Piety with an abundance of temporal Blessings.

All this considered, we can no longer doubt but that the true design of his work was to recommend INITIATION INTO THE MYSTERIES, IN OPPOSITION TO THE NEW RELIGION. We see the Catastrophe of the piece, the whole Eleventh Book, entirely taken up with it; and composed with the greatest seriousness and superstition.

And, furely, nothing could be better conceived, to recommend the Mysteries, than the idea of such a plan; or better contrived than his execution of it. In which he omits no circumstance that might

<sup>\*</sup> Respondent sidera. This, I suppose, relates to the music of the spheres. The image is noble and sublime. It is taken from the consent in the lyre, to answer to, and obey the hand of the Master who had put them into tune.

<sup>+</sup> P. 257, 258.

be plausibly opposed to Christianity; or that might recommend the Mysteries with advantage to the Magistrate's protection: as where he tells us, that in these Rites, they prayed for the prosperity of all Orders in the State—" fausta vota præsatus principi magno, "senatuique et equiti, totique populo Romano."

This interpretation will throw new light on every part of the GOLDEN ASS. But I have been so long upon the subject, that I have only time to give one instance; and this, chiefly because it reslects light back again on my general interpretation of the Fable.

In the fifth and fixth books is the long episode of CUPID and PSYCHE; visibly allegorical throughout; and entirely foreign to all the rest of the work, considered as a mere Milesian sable; but very applicable to the Writer's purpose, if he had that moral to inculcate which we have here assigned unto him.

There was no man, though he regarded the golden As as a thing of mere amusement, but saw that the story of CUPID and PSYCHE was a philosophic allegory of the progress of the soul to perfection, in the possession of divine love and the reward of immortality. The Amour of Cupid and Psyche was a subject which lay in common amongst the Platonic writers. And though originally founded on some obfcure tradition of the Fall of Man, yet every one fashioned this agreeable fiction (as our Author has done here) according to the doctrines he had to convey under it. By this means it could not but become famous. The remaining monuments of ancient sculpture convince us that it was very famous; in which, nothing is fo common as the figures of CUPID and PSYCHE in the various circumstances of their adventures. Now we have shewn at large, that the professed end of the Mysteries, in the later ages of their celebrity, was to restore the soul to it's ORIGINAL RECTITUDE, and, in every age, to encourage good men with the promises of bappiness in another life. The fable, therefore, of Cupid and Psyche, in the fifth and fixth books, was the finest and most artful preparative for the subject of the eleventh, which treats professedly of the Mysteries.

But

But if we look more nearly into this beautiful Fable, we shall find that, besides it's general purpose, it has one more particular. We have observed that the corrupt flate of the Musteries, in the time of Apuleius, was one principal reason of his undertaking their apology. These corruptions were of two kinds, DEBAUCHERIES and MAGIC. Their debaucheries have been taken notice of above. Their MAGIC was of three forts: 1. The Magic of invocation or NECROMANCY. 2. The Magic of transformation or METAMOR-PHOSIS. 2. And the Magic of divine communication under a visible appearance or THEURGY. The ORACULAR RESPONSES, introduced late into the Mysteries, seem to have given birth to the first: The Doctrine of the METEMPSYCHOSIS taught therein, to the second: and the AHOPPHTA concerning the DIVINE NATURE, to the third. The abomination of the two first forts was seen by all, and frankly given up as criminal: but the fanatic Platonists and Pythagoreans of the latter ages, espousing the third, occasioned it to be held in esteem and reverence. So that, as Heliodorus tells us, the Egyptian priests (between whose fanaticism and that of the Platonists there was, at this time, a kind of coalition\*) affected to distinguish between the MAGIC of Necromancy and the magic of Theurgy; accounting the first infamous and wicked; but the last very fair, and even commendable. For now both those philosophic Enthusiasts had their mysterious Rites, which consisted in the practice of this Theurgic Magic. These were the Mysteries, to observe it by the way, of which the Emperor Julian was fo fond, that he placed his principal felicity (in what the Christians placed his principal crime) their celebration. But our Author, who had imbibed his Platonism, not at the muddy streams of those late Fanatics, but at the pure fountain head of the Academy itself, well understood how much this superstition, with all it's plausible pretences, had polluted the Mysteries; and, therefore, as in the course of the adventures of his golden Ass, he had stigmatized the two other kinds of

<sup>\*</sup> See Book iii. Sect. iv. towards the end.

Magic, he composed this celebrated tale (hitherto so little understood) to expose the Magic of Theürgy. It is, as we said, a philosophic Allegory of the progress of the Soul to perfection, in the possession of Divine Love and the reward of immortality, delivered in the adventures of Psyche, or the Soul: whose various labours and traverses in this Progress, are all represented as the effects of her indifferent passion for that species of magic called Theürgy.

To understand this, we must observe, that the fanatic Platonists, in their pursuit of the Supreme Good, the Union with the Deity, made the completion and perfection of it to consist in the Theürgic Vision of the Αὐτοπρον Αγαλμα or SELF SEEN IMAGE, i. e. seen by the splendour of its own light. Now the story tells us, there were three Sisters, the youngest of whom was called Psyche; by which we are to understand, the three peripatetic souls, the sensitive, the animal, and the rational; or in other words, sense, appetite, and reason.

That the two elder Sisters, Sense and Appetite, were soon disposed of in marriage; but that the younger, Psyche or the rational Soul, was of so transcendant and divine a beauty, that though men for-sook the alters of the Gods to sollow and worship her \*, having paid her their full homage of admiration, not so much as one aspired to a closer union with her: intimating the general preference given to temporal things above spiritual:

Virtus laudatur & alget.

A D A

However, amidst this neglect, she is happily contracted to, and possesses, the celestial Cupid, or DIVINE LOVE, who cohabits with her INVISIBLY amidst a scene of paradisaical pleasures and enjoyments. But is warned by Cupid not to hearken to the pernicious counsel of her sisters, whose envy at her happiness, from their own choice of husbands diseased and avaricious +, the lot of those under the do-

<sup>\*</sup> Apuleii Met. ed. Priczi, p. 85. Interea Psyche, cum sua sibi przecipua pulchritudine nullum decoris sui fructum percipit. Spectatur ab omnibus; laudatur ab omnibus, nec quisquam - cupiens ejus nuptiarum petitur accedit.

minion of their appetites, would foon bring them to attempt her ruin, in persuading her to get a sight of her invisible spouse. Against which SACRILEGIOUS CURIOSITY, as what would deprive her of all her \_appiness\*, and to which her sisters would endeavour to inflame her mind, he carefully warns her. By all which the Author would infinuate, that they are the irregular passions and the ungovernable appetites which stir up men's curiofity to this species of magic, the THEÜRGIC VISION. However, Psyche falls into the fnare her fifters had laid for her, and against the express injunction of the God, facrilegiously attempts this forbidden sight; though he assured her +, that if she kept the religious secret, the child to be born of them should be immortal; but if she prophaned it, the child would be mortal, intimating, that Theurgic Magic was fo far from rendering the participants divine, that it loaded them with impiety. In a word, she indulges her inordinate appetite, and is undone: Divine Love forfakes her; the happy scenes of her abode vanish; and she finds herself forlorn and abandoned, surrounded with miseries, and pursued with the vengeance of heaven by its instrument the Celeftial Venus.

In this distress she first comes to the temple of CERES for protection; by which is meant the custom of having recourse to the Mysteries against the evils and disasters of life, as is plainly intimated in the reason given for her application—" nec ullam vel dubiam " spei melior viam volens omittere ‡." Spes melior being the common appellation for what was sought for in the Mysteries, and what they promised to the participants. With these sentiments she addresses Ceres in the following observation: "Per ego te frugiseram tuam dextram istam deprecor—per tacita sacra cistarum—per—per, et cetera quæ silentio tegit Eleusinis Atticæ sacrarium—— §" But

<sup>\*</sup> Identidem monuit, ac sæpe terruit, ne quando sororum pernicioso confilio suasa, de forma Mariti quærat: neve se sacrilega curiositate de tanto sortunarum suggessu pessum dejiciat; nec suum postea contingat amplexum. P. 92.

<sup>†</sup> Infantem—si texeris nostra secreta silentio, divinum; si profanaveris, mortalem, P. 96. † P. 1112. § P. 1111.

Plyche is denied any protection both here and at the temple of Juno: for the purer Mysteries discouraged all kind of magic, even the most specious. However, she is pitied by both. The reason Ceres gives her for not complying with her request is remarkable. She had entered, she said, into an ancient league with Venus, which she could not violate\*. By which is intimated, that all the Mysteries had one and the same end. And Psyche, she said, had reason to thank her that she did not seize on her and detain her prisoner +; alluding to the obligation that all were under to bring to punishment the violaters of the Mysteries.

Juno excuses herself, from imparting any assistance, "out of reverence to the Laws, which forbid any one to entertain another's runaway servant ‡." For those who had violated the Mysteries of one God could not be admitted to those of another.

In this distress PSYCHE resolves at last to render herself to the offended Parties, and implore their pardon. Venus imposes on her a long and severe penance; in which the author seems to have shadowed out the trials and labours undergone by the aspirants to the Mysteries, and the more severe in proportion to the delinquencies of the aspirants, intimated in the words of Venus to her.—Sed jam nunc ego sedulo periclitabor an oppido ferti animo, singularique prudentia sis prædita §.

During the course of these trials PSYCHE salls once more into distress by her rash curiosity ||, and would be undone but for the divine assistance, which all along supports and aids her in her dissiculties. In which the author hints at the promises made to the aspirants on these occasions.—Nec Providentive bonze graves oculos innocentis anima latuit zerumna. In her greatest distress, in the repetition of her first capital fault, she is relieved by Cupid himself;

<sup>. --</sup>cum qua etiam antiquum foedus amicitiz colo. P. 111.

<sup>†</sup> quod a me retenta custoditaque non suetis optimi consule. P. 112.

<sup>† -</sup>tunc etiam Legibus, quæ servos alienos profugos, invitis Dominis, vetant suscipi, prohibeor. P. 112.

<sup>§</sup> P. 118. | Mente capitur TEMERITATE CURIOSITATE, p. 119.

intimating, that nothing but the divine aid can overcome human weakness; as appears from these words of Cupid to his spouse—Et ecce, inquit, rursum perieras misella simili curiositate. Sed interim quidem tu provinciam, quæ tibi matris meæ precepto mandata est, exequere gnaviter: cetera egomet videro\*. When in these trials the aspirant had done his best, the Gods would help out the rest.

With this assistance, she performs her penance, is pardoned, and restored to favour: put again into possession of DIVINE LOVE, and rewarded with IMMORTALITY, the declared end of all the MYSTERIES.

There are many other circumstances in this fine Allegory equally serving to support the system here explained: as there are others which allude to divers beautiful platonic notions, foreign to the present discourse. It is enough that we have pointed to its chief, and peculiar purpose; which it was impossible to see while the nature and design of the whole Fable lay undiscovered.

But now perhaps it may be faid, "That all this is very well. An Allegory is here found for the GOLDEN Ass, which, it must be owned, fits the Fable. But still it may be asked, Was it indeed made for it? Did the Author write the tale for the moral; or did the Critic find the moral for the tale? For an Allegory may be drawn from almost any story: and they have been often made for Authors who never thought of them. Nay, when a rage of allegorizing happens to prevail, as it did a century or two ago, the Author himself will be either tempted or obliged, without the Commentator, to encourage this delusion. Ariosto and Tasso, writers of the highest reputation, one of whom wrote after the Gothic Romances, as the other after the Classic Fables, without ever concerning themselves about any other moral than what the natural circumstances of the story conveyed; yet, to secure the success of their poems, they submitted, in compliance to fashion and false tafte, to the ridiculous drudgery of inventing a kind of posthumous Allegory, and sometimes more than one; that the reader himself might season their Fables to his own taste. As this has been the case, To shew that I neither impose upon myself nor others, I have reserved the Author's own declaration of his having an Allegoric meaning, for the last confirmation of my system. It is in these words,

At ego tibi sermone isto Milesio
Varias Fabulas conseram, auresque tuas
Benevolas lepido susurro permulceam;
Modo si PAPYRUM ÆGYPTIAM ARGUTIA
NILOTICI CALAMI INSCRIPTAM, non spreveris
Inspicere \*-----

A direct infinuation of its being replete with the profound Ægyptian wifdom; of which, that Nation, by the invention of the MYSTERIES, had conveyed so considerable a part to the Greeks.

Before I totally dismiss this matter it may not be improper to observe, that both VIRGIL and APULEIUS have represented the genuine MYSTERIES, as Rites of perfect sanctity and purity; and recommended only such to their Countrymen; while they expose impure and impious Rites to the public execration; for it was their purpose to stigmatize the reigning corruptions, and to recommend the ancient sanctity. On the other hand, a man attached by his office to the recommendation of the Mysteries, as then practised, was to do the best he could, when deprived of the benefit of this distinction; and was to endeavour to give fair colours to the soulest things. This was the case of Jamblichus. His friend Porphyry had some scruples on this head. He doubts whether those Rites could come from the Gods, which admitted such a mixture of lewdness and impurity. Such a mixture Jamblichus consesses; but, at the same time, endeavours to account for their divine

<sup>\*</sup> In init. Fab.

original, by shewing, that they are only the emblems of natural Truths; or a kind of moral purgation of the inordinate patfions \*. You will say, he might have given a better answer;
That they were modern abuses and corruptions. He asks your
pardon for that. Such a confession would have been condemning
his own Platonic fanaticism; that very fanaticism which had
brought in these abominations. He was reduced therefore to the
necessity of admitting that they were no after-corruptions, but
coeval with the Rites themselves. And this admission of so
learned a Hierophant, is, as far as I am able to collect, the only
support which any one can now have for saying, that the
Mysteries were impure and abominable, even from their sirst Institution.

Hitherto we have considered the Legislator's care in perpetuating the doctrine of a FUTURE STATE. And if I have been longer than ordinary on this head, my excuse is, that the topic was new +, and the doctrine itself, which is the main subject of the present inquiry, much interested in it.

A very remarkable circumstance (for which we are indebted to the observation of modern travellers) may convince us, that Rulers and Governors cultivated the belief of this doctrine with a more than common assiduity. Many barbarous nations have been discovered in these later times, on the coasts of Africa, which,

<sup>•</sup> De mysteriis, Sect. i. cap. xi.

<sup>†</sup> A well-known writer, Mr. Jackson (not to speak at present of Others of a latr date) who had long and scurrilously railed at the author of the D. L. in a number of miserable pamphlets, hath at length thought sit in a Thing, called Chronological Antiquities, to borrow from this book, without any acknowledgment, all he had to give the public concerning the pagan Mysteries; and much, concerning the hieroglyphics and origin of idolatry. But this is the common practice of such fort of writers: and is only mentioned here to shew the reader to what class they belong. The treatment these volumes have met with from some of the most worthless of my Countrymen, made me think it expedient to contrast their behaviour with that of the most learned and respectable foreign Divines and Critics of France, Germany, and Holland, in their animadversions on this work, occasionally inferted in the notes.

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in the distractions of Government, and transmigrations of People, have, it is probable, fallen from a civilized to a savage state of tife. These are found to have little or no knowledge of a God, or observance of Religion. And yet, which is a surprising paradox, they still retain the settled belief and expectation of a future state. A wonder to be accounted for no other way than by what hath been said above of the Legislator's principal concern for the support of this Doctrine; and of the deep root, which by its agreeable nature, it takes in the Mind wherever it has been once received. So that though, as it hath been observed, no Religion ever existed without the doctrine of a Future State, yet the doctrine of a Future State hath, it seems, sometimes existed without a Religion.

## A P P E N D I X

## TO BOOK II.

E have seen with what art, and care in contrivance, the Sages of the Gentile World endeavoured, by the intervention of the Mysteries, to prevent the memory of the fist Cause of all things from being totally obliterated from the minds of men; while the perverse constitution of the National Idolatries prevented the true God's being received into any public Worship. To the Secret of the Mysteries it was, that these Pseudo Evangelists invited their more capable Disciples, awfully admonishing them to give beed unto it, as unto a light shining in a dark place. For it was no more than such a glimmering, till the rising of the day star of the Gospel, in the bearts of the Faithful.

But if the late noble Author of THE FIRST PHILOSOPHY descrives credit; all this care was as absurd as it was fruitless.

The Institutors of the Mysteries imparted this SECRET, as the true and only solid soundation of Religion; for the first Cause was, in their ideas, a God whose essence indeed was incomprehensible, but his attributes, as well moral as natural, discoverable by human reason. Such a God was wanted for that soundation: for unassisted reason taught them, as, in its most assigned state, it had taught St. Paul, That he who cometh to God, must believe that he is; and that he is a rewarder of them who diligently seek him. Thus Plato, in his Book of Laws, speaking of Religion, and it's use to civil Society, says, "It is not of small consequence, that what we here reason about the Gods, should, by all means and methods, he made probable; as that they are, and that they are good "." Hence, though their mistaken mode of teaching deprived the pagan world of the fruit of the Doctrine, the purpose however was laudable and rational.

But now comes a modern Sage \*—PHILOSOPHER and STATESMAN like the Ancient, (in all things else how unlike!) who tells us "that they made the Basis of Religion far too wide; that men have no surther concern with God than 10 believe that he is, which his physical Attributes make sully manifest; but, That he is a rewarder of them who diligently seek him, Religion doth not require us to believe, since this depends on God's MORAR ATTRIBUTES, of which we have no conception." In this manner, by the turn of a hand, hath our Noble Philosopher changed Natural Religion into NATURALISM; and made this care of the ancient Sages as ridiculously conceived as it was inessectually prosecuted.

But to do justice to the weak endeavours of those Friends and Servants of Mankind, who surely deserve a grateful memory with Posterity, I shall take the liberty to examine his Lordship's reasoning on this branch of his FIRST PHILOSOPHY; which casts so malignant a shade over the whole religious World.

He pretends to prove That we have no ADEQUATE ideas of God's moral attributes, his GOODNESS and JUSTICE, as we have of his natural, his Wisdom and Power. Here let me observe, that his Lordship uses the words, inadequate ideas, and, no ideas, as terms of the same import. And I think, not improperly. I have therefore followed him in the different use of either expression. For the reason of his calling our ideas of God's moral attributes inadequate, is, because he denies that goodness and justice in God, and goodness and justice amongst Men, are the same in kind. But if not the same in kind, we can have no idea of them; because we have no idea of any other kind of goodness and justice.

He lays down these three Propositions.

- 1. That, by METAPHYSICS, or by reasoning a priori, we can gain no knowledge of God at all.
- 2. That our knowledge of his Attributes is to be acquired only by a contemplation on his Works, or by the reasoning a posteriori.
- 3. That in this way, we can only arrive at the knowledge of his NATURAL Attributes, not of his MORAL.
- "It is from the constitution of the world alone (says his Lord"fhip) and from the state of mankind in it, that we can acquire any
  "ideas of the divine attributes, or a right to affirm any thing about them †."

<sup>\*</sup> Lord Bolingbroke.

"The knowledge of the Creator is, on many accounts, necessary to such a creature as man: and therefore we are made able to arrive by a proper exercise of our mental faculties, from a knowledge of God's works to a knowledge of bis existence, and of that infinite power and wisdom which are demonstrated to us in them. Our knowledge concerning God goes of NO FURTHER \*."

"Artificial Theology connects by very problematical reasoning a priori, MORAL ATTRIBUTES, such as we conceive them, and such as they are relatively to us, with the physical astributes of God; though there be no sufficient soundation for this proceeding, nay, though the phanomena are in several cases repugnant +."

Having thus affured us that the ideas of God's moral attributes are to be got by no confequential reasoning at all, either a priori or a posteriori, the two only ways we have to knowledge; He rightly concludes, that if Man hat such ideas, they were not found but invented by him. And therefore, that nothing might be wanting to the full dilucidation of this curious point, he acquaints us who were the Authors of the FICTION, and how strangely the thing came about.

"Some of the Philosophers (says his Lordship) having been led by a "more full and accurate contemplation of Nature to the knowledge of a supreme self-existent Being of infinite power and wisdom, and the first "Cause of all things, were not contented with this degree of knowledge. "They made a System of God's moral as well as physical attributes, "By which to account for the proceedings of his providence \docs,"

These l'hilosophers then, it seems, invented the system of God's moral attributes, in order to account for the difficulties arising from the view of God's moral government. If the World till now had been so dull as to have no conception of these Attributes; his Lordship's Philosophers, we see, made amends; who were so quick-witted to conceive, and so sharp-sighted to find out, the obliquities of a crooked line before they had got any idea of a straight one. For just to this, neither more nor less, does his Lordship's observation amount, that—they made a System of Goa's moral attributes, by which to account for the proceedings of his Providence. 'Till now, none of us could conceive how any doubts concerning moral Government could arise but on the previous ideas of the moral attributes of the Go-

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. IV. p. 86. † Vol. V. p. 316. ‡ Vol. IV. p. 48.

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vernor. This invention of his Lordship's old Philosophers puts me in mind of an ingenious Modern, the curious Sancho Pancha; who, as his historian tells us, was very inquisitive to discover the author of that very useful invention we call Sleep: for, with this worthy Magistrate, Sleep and good Cheer were the First Philosophy. Now the things sought after by Sancho and his Lordship, were at no great distance; for if Sleeping began when men first shut their eyes, it is certain the idea of God's Goodness appeared as soon as ever they opened them.

Dr. Clarke's Demonstration of the moral attributes a priori, I shall leave, as his Lordship is pleased to do, in all it's force. If the Doctor's followers think their Master's honour concerned, where his arguments are not, they have a large field and a safe to shew their prowess. I rather chuse to undertake the Noble Philosopher on his own terms, without any other arms than the arguments a posseriori. For he is such a Champion for the good Cause, that he not only appoints his Adversaries the Field, but prescribes to them the use of their weapons.

But his Lordship, like other great men, is not easily approached; and when he is, not always sit to be seen. You catch his first Philosophy, as Butler's Hero did Aristotle's first matter, undressed, and without a rag of form; however slaunting and fluttering in fragments. To speak plainly, his Lordship's entire neglect or ignorance of Method betrays him into endless repetitions: and, in these, whether for want of precision in his ideas, propriety in his terms, or art in his composition, the question is perpetually changing; and rarely without being new-covered by an equivocal expression. If you add to this, the perpetual contradictions into which he falls, either by defect of memory, excess of passion, or distress of argument, you will allow it to be no easy matter to take him fairly, to know him fully, and to represent him to the best advantage: in none of which offices would I be willingly desective. Indeed, when you have done this, the business is over; and his Lordship's reasoning generally consutes itself.

When I reflect upon what this hath cost me, the reading over two or three bulky volumes to get possession of a single argument; which now you think you hold, and then again you lose; which meets you sull when you least expect it; and slips away from you the very moment it promises to do most: when, I say, I reslect upon all this, I connot but lament the hard luck of the English Clergy, who, though apparently least sit, as being made Parties; certainly the least concerned as there is nothing that

can impose on a Scholar, though a great deal that may mislead the People, are likely to be the men most engaged with his Lordship in this controversy. Time was, when if a Writer had a disposition to seek objections against Religion, though he found them hardly, and urged them heavily, yet he would digest his thoughts, and methodize his reasoning. The Clergy had then nothing to do but to answer him, if they found themselves able. But fince this flovenly custom (as Lord Shaftesbury calls it) has got amongst our Free-thinkers, of taking their physic in public, of throwing about their loose and crude indigestions under the name of FRAGMENTS, things which in their very name imply not so much the want, as the exclufion of all form, the Advocate of Religion has had a fine time of it: he must work them into consistence, he must mould them into shape, before he can fafely lay hold of them himfelf, or pretent them handsomely to the Public. But these Gentlemen have provided that a Clergyman should never be idle. All, he had of old to attend, was the faving the fouls of those committed to his care. He must now begin his work a great deal higher; he must first convince his slock that they have souls to be saved. And the spite of all is, that at the same time his kind masters have doubled his task, they appear very well disposed to lessen his wages.

We have observed, that the DENIAL of God's moral attributes is the great barrier against Religion in general: but it is more especially serviceable in his Lordship's idiosyncratic terrors, the terrors of a future State. To these we owe his samous book of Fragments, composed occasionally, and taken as an extemporaneous cordial, each stronger than the other, to support himself under his frequent paroxysms. For, set the moral attributes aside, and we can neither form any judgment of the end of man, nor of the nature of God's government. All our knowledge will be confined to our present state and condition \*. It is by the moral attributes, we learn, that man was made for bappiness: and that God's dispensation to us bere is but part of a general system: This naturally extends our views to, and terminates our knowledge in, Futurity.

The fate of all Religion therefore being included in the question of God's moral attributes, I hold it of much importance to prove against his Lord-

<sup>\*</sup> One of his Lordship's Corollaries therefore from the Proposition of no moral attributes, is this, "Our Knowledge concerning God goes no further than for the necessary use of "human life." Vol. IV. p. 486.

ship, that MEN MAY ACQUIRE ADEQUATE IDEAS OF THEM in the same way, and with equal certainty, in which they acquire the knowledge of God's natural attributes: And the knowledge of these latter his Lordship deduces from its original in the following words.

"All our knowledge of God (says he) is derived from his works. Every part of the immense Universe, and the order and harmony of the Whole, are not only conformable to our ideas or notions of wisdom and power, but these ideas and notions were impressed originally and principally by them, on every attentive mind; and men were led to conclude, with the utmost certainty, that a Being of infinite wisdom and power made, preserved, and governed the system. As far as we can discover, we discern these in all his works; and where we cannot discern them, it is manifestly due to our impersection, not to his. This now is real knowledge, or there is no such thing as knowledge. We acquire it immediately in the observed themselves, in God, and in Nature, the work of God. We know what wisdom and power are: we know both intuitively, and by the help of our senses, that such as we conceive them to be, such they appear in the Work: and therefore we know demonstratively that such they are in the Worker \*."

All this is mighty well: and on these very grounds I undertake to prove that men may get as clear and precise ideas of God's GOODNESS and JUSTICE.

But, to prevent, or, indeed, now things are gone thus far, rather to redress all ambiguity in the terms, and equivocation in the use of them; it will be proper to explain what TRUE PHILOSOPHY means by God's works, whether physical or moral.

Now, it means, if I am not much mistaken, that constitution of things which God hath established, and directed to a plain and obvious end: no regard being had to those impediments or obstructions in it's course, which the Author of nature hath permitted to arise from any part of the material, or intellestual Creation.

Thus, when we consider his physical works, in order to make our estimate of his wision and power, we conceive them as they are in themselves; and in the persection of their first constitution; though the greater portions of the physical system may, from the intractability of Matter, be subject to some inconsiderable irregularities; which, as the TRUE PHILOSOFHER + ob-

ferves, will be apt to increase till this System wants a reformation: and though the smaller Portions of it, such as the bodies of animals, may, from various accidents in their conception and birth, often want that convenient form in the adaption of their parts, from the wonderful contrivance of which, in the various bodies of animals in general, arises so illustrious an evidence of the wisdom and power of the Creator.

Surely, then, common sense guided by equitable measure requires us to estimate God's moral Works on the same standard; to consider what the moral constitution is in itself: and (when the question is of God's goodness and justice) to keep that consideration distinct; and not suffer it to be disturbed by the view of any interruptions occasioned by the perverse influence of the passion or action of material or immaterial Beings. For, here, Both concur to violate the Constitution: In the natural system, man's Free-will hath no place: in the moral, the abuse of Free-will occasions the greatest of it's disorders.

In profecuting this question, therefore, As, in order to acquire and confirm our ideas of God's wisdom and power, we consider the natural system so far forth only as it's order and harmony is supported by the general Laws of matter and motion; so, in order to acquire and consirm our ideas of his goodness and justice, we should regard the moral system so far forth only as it's order and harmony is supported by that GENERAL LAW, which annexes happiness to virtue, and to vice, misery, and ruin.

Thus much, and only thus much, is God's ll'ork in either system: and it is from God's ll'ork, he tells us, we are to demonstrate his Attributes. The rest (where disorders real or apparent obtrude themselves to obstruct our views in these discoveries) proceed from Matter and Mind.

And it is not to be forgotten, that the conclusion, Religionists draw from hence, in support of their adequate ideas of God's moral attributes, hath the greater strength upon his Lordship's own principles; who holds, that this Constitution arises folcy from the will of God: For then we are sure that the will, which annexes happiness to virtue, and misery to vice, must arise from God's moral rather than from his physical nature.

Having premised thus much; no more, indeed, than necessary to obviate one continued Sophism, which runs through all his Lordship's reafonings, against the meral attributes (where, the course and operation of that moral Constitution, as it appears under the disturbances occasioned by man's

free-will, is perpetually put for the Constitution itself) I now proceed to shew, that, from God's works, we have as precise ideas of his goodness and justice as of his power and wisdom.

His Lordship observes, that from every part of the immense Universe, and from the harmony of the Whole, men are led to conclude, with the utmost certainty, that a Being of infinite wisdom and power made, preserved, and governed the System. This, he observes in favour of the natural attributes. And what should hinder men from making the same observation in favour of the moral, viz. That the happiness and misery by the very constitution of nature, attendant on Virtue and on Vice, lead men to conclude, with equal certainty, that a Being of infinite Goodness and justice made, preserves, and governs the system?

The existence of this moral Constitution in the natural connexion between vice and misery, virtue and happiness, his Lordship amply acknowledges. I et us consider it, therefore, both as it respects bodies of men, and INDIVIDUALS.

That Communities are always happy or miserable in proportion as their Manners are virtuous or vicious, his Lordship himself is, on all occasions, ready to demonstrate. If such a Constitution of things do not bespeak the Author of it, geed and just, how is it possible to conclude any thing of the character of the Creator, from his Works? His Lordship thinks, "that from the marks of wisdom and power in the physical system we learn with the utmost certainty that God is wise and powerful; and he says, that we acquire this knowledge immediately, as it were, by our senses." Are there not the self same marks of goodness and justice in this part at least of the moral system which respects Communities? And do not we come to know as immediately by our senses, and as certainly by our reason, that God is good and just?

If we consider the moral Constitution, as it respects Particulars, we see virtue and vice have the same influence on our happiness and misery. Here, indeed, we find more interruptions, in the means to the end, than in the other part. Our material and our intellectual Natures are here of more force, to disorder the harmony of the System. In Communities, it can rarely be disturbed, but by a Pestilence, or that other, moral, Plague, a Hero or a Conqueror. Amongst Particulars, indeed, physical evil and the abuse of free-will operate more strongly: But when once the demonstrates

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firation of the moral attributes is clearly made from that part of the Conflitution which regards Communities, it can never afterwards be shaken by the disorders in that other part which regards Particulars. The established truth is now a Principle for further discoveries; and all we can fairly deduce from these disorders is the CERTAINTY of a future State. But this by the way.

What I insist upon at present is, that, to decide the question concerning God's Attributes, we are to consider the Constitution of things, as it is in itself. This is, properly, God's work. The disorders in it, occasioned by the abuse of man's free-will, is not his work, but man's. This, his Lordship too, upon another occasion, namely, when he combats the argument of a future state, from an unequal Providence, is perpetually repeating. So that these disorders must, even on his Lordship's own principles, be excluded from the account, when we estimate God's Nature and Attributes, from his Works.

"But we see not those disorders in the natural world, which we both see and feel in the moral." This would be some objection did God in the moral. as in the natural system, direct immediately, or constitute things mechanically; or had Free-will the same influence on the natural as on the moral system.— Did God direct, immediately or mechanically in both Constitutions, or did he direct immediately and mechanically in neither, and that yet the moral remained more subject to disorder than the natural, it might indeed follow that we had not so clear ideas of God's goodness and justice as of his wildom and power: But fince He has thought fit to leave man, free; and hath been pleased to suffer the abuse of free-will to affect the moral system, and not the natural; as this, I say, is the case, the greater irregularities in the one do not take off from the equal clearness of the demonstration, which results from the nature of both one and the other Constitution. This difference is not to be ascribed to a contrary conduct in the Governor of the two Systems, but to the contrary natures of the Subjects. Passive matter being totally inert, it's refistance to the Laws impressed upon it, must be extremely weak: and consequently the disorders arising from that resistance, proportionably flow and unheeded: while that active felf moving principle, the Mind, flies out at once from the centre of its direction, and can every moment deflect from the line of truth and equity. Hence moral diforders began early, became excessive, and have continued, through all ages, to disturb the harmony of the System.

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What is here faid will, I suppose, be sufficient to to confute the following affertions; and to detect the mistake on which they arise.

" Every thing (fays his Lordship) shews the wisdom and power of God " conformably to our ideas of wisdom and power in the physical world and " in the moral. But every thing does not show in like manner the justice and " goodness conformably to our ideas of these attributes in either. The phy-" sical attributes are in their nature more glaring and less equivocal \*."

And again; "There is no fufficient foundation in the phænomena of Na-" ture to connect the moral attributes with the physical attributes of God. " Nay, the phanomena are in several cases repugnant +."

But fince he goes so far as to talk of the want of a foundation, and even a repugnancy; Before I proceed with the main braneh of my reasoning, I will just urge one single argument for the reality and full evidence of the moral attributes: and it shall be taken from his own concessions, and shall conclude on his own principles.

He tells us, that such as he, " who apply themselves to the first Philo. " Jophy, apply themselves to the noblest objects that can demand the attention " of the mind-To the fignification of God's WILL, concerning the du-"ties we owe to him, and to one another ‡."

And again, "It is sufficient to establish our moral obligations that we " confider them relatively to our own system. From thence they arise: and " fince they arise from thence, it must be the WILL of that Being who "made the system, that we should observe and practise them §."

Let me ask then, Whence it is that we collect this WILL from the objects which his Lordship allows us to contemplate, namely, his works in this jystem? He will fay from certain qualities in those objects-What are those qualities? He will reply, the fitnesses of means to ends. Who was the Author of these fitnesses? He hath told us, the God of nature-It was God's will then, that we should use the means, in order to obtain the ends. Now, in the moral System, the means are virtuous practice; the end, happiness. Virtue therefore must needs be pleasing to him; and Vice, as it's contrary, displeasing. Well, but then, as to this approbation and diflike; it must be either capricious, or it must be regulated on the nature of things. Wisdom, which his Lordship condescends to give his Maker, will not allow us to suppose it capricious. It is regulated therefore on the nature of things. But if the nature of things be, as his Lordship holds it is, the constitution of God, and dependent on his will, then he who is pleased with virtue, and displeased with vice, must need be himself good and just.

To proceed now with the principal branch of our reasoning. His Lordship goes on thus. But men not only might collett God's natural attributes from the physical system, but in effect they did; and all men, at all times, had these notions so strongly impressed on them, that they were led to conclude with the utmost certainty for a Being of infinite power and wisdom.

I defire to know in what time or place it ever happened, before his I.ordship philosophised at Battersea, and could find no foundation, in the phanomena of nature, to connect the moral with the physical attributes of God, that a Man, who believed God's infinite wisdom and power, did not with equal confidence believe his infinite goodness and justice? In truth, these two sets of ideas, the physical and moral attributes of the Deity, were equally extensive, they were equally steddy, and, till now, they were always inseparable.

He says, that as far as we can discover, we discern infinite wisdom and power in all God's works: and where we cannot discern them, it is manifestly due to our imperfection, not to his.

What his Lordship here says will deserve to be considered. A comparison is infinuated between our discovery of infinite power and wisdom from the physical works of God; and our discovery of infinite goodness and justice from his moral works; in which, the advantage is given to the former. Now, in order to come to a just decision in this point (omitting at present the notice of his general Sophism which operates in this observation, as in the rest) we must distinguish between the means of acquiring the knowledge of God's Attributes, and that knowledge when acquired.

As to the first, (the means of acquiring,) there seems to be some advantage on the side of God's physical works. For, as his Lordship rightly observes, where we cannot discern wisdom and power in the physical works it is due to our impersession, not to his: for as men advance in the knowledge of nature, we see more and more of wisdom and power. And he infinuates, we cannot say the same concerning the difficulties in the moral system. It is true, we cannot. But then let me tell him, neither can we say the contrary. The reason is, The physical system lies open to our enquiries;

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and by the right application of our fenses to well-tried experiments, we are able to make considerable advances in the knowledge of Nature. It is not so in the moral system; all we know here are a few general principles concerning its Constitution; and further than this, human wit or industry is unable to penetrate. These general principles are, indeed, amply sufficient to deduce and establish the moral attributes from the moral system; but not sufficient to remove all difficulties that arise from what we see of the actual administration of that System. So that, though swe cannot say, that as we advance in the knowledge of the moral system we see more and more of goodness and justiness; So neither can bis Lordship say (though his words seem to infinuate he could) that as we advance, we see less and less. Whereas the truth is, beyond those general principles, we cannot advance at all.

But then, as to the second part in the distinction (the knowledge of the attributes, when acquired) I hold the advantage, and a great one it is, lies altogether on the fide of the MORAL. And thus I argue: Though the idea of God's natural attributes be as clear in the abstract, as that of his moral, yet the idea of his moral attributes is, in the concrete, more adequate than that of his natural. The reason seems convincing. The moral relation in which we stand to God, as free agents, is just the same whether man exists alone, or whether he be but a link in the chain of innumerable orders of intelligences furrounding the whole Creation. Hence we must needs have a full knowledge of our duty to him, and of his disposition towards us: on which knowledge is founded the exactness of our conceptions of his moral attributes, his justice and goodness. natural relation in which we, or any of God's creatures, stand towards him, as material Beings, is not the fame when confidered fimply, as when confidered to be a portion of a dependent and connected Whole. Because whenever such a Whole exists, the harmony and perfection of it must first of all be consulted. This harmony ariseth from the mutual subferviency and union of its parts. But this subserviency may require a ministration of government, with regard to certain portions of Matter thus allied, different from what might have followed had those portions stood alone, because that precise disposition, which might be sit in one case, might be unfit in the other. Hence we, who know there is a Whole, of which our material system is a Part; and yet are totally ignorant both of its nature and extent, can have but a very confused idea of that physical relation

relation in which we stand towards God: so that our conceptions of his natural attributes, his power and wisdom, which are sounded on that idea, must in the concrete be proportionably vague and inadequate.

But it may be asked, perhaps, Whence arises this reciprocal advantage which the moral and the natural attributes have over one another, in the means of acquiring the knowledge of the Attributes, and the precision of that knowledge when acquired? I will tell the Reader in two words. Of our own pixsical system, we know many particulars (that is, we discover much of the means, but nothing of the end); and of the universal physical system we are entirely ignorant. On the other hand, we know but sew particulars of our own m ral system (that is, we discover only the end, and not the means); and of the universal moral system we understand the genetal principles.

His Lordship proceeds. This now [the knowledge of God's natural attributes] is real knowledge; or there is no such thing as knowledge. We acquire it immediately in the objects themselves, IN GOD, and in nature the work of God.

What his Lordship means by, in God, in distinction from the work of God, I confess I do not understand: Perhaps it may be intended to insinuate, in honour of the natural attributes, that they may be even proved a priori; for this is not the first time by many, when, after having heartily abused a thing or person, he has been reduced to support himself on the authority, or the reasoning they afford him. Or perhaps, it was only used to round the period, and set off his cloquence. However, I agree with him, that this is real knowledge. And so too, I think, is the knowledge of the moral attributes, so gained. Why truly, savs his Lordship, I do allow just so much goodness and justice in God as we see in that CONSTI-TUTION, which annexes happiness to virtue, and misery to vice. But this, fays he, I think, bad better be called WISDOM. I think so too, if by so much, he means no more than what concerns God's natural Government: and that he means no more is plain from his making the natural confequence of vice and virtue the only sanction of the moral Law. But I will venture to go further, and say, that, from what we see in this Constitution, we may collect PERFECT GOODNESS AND JUSTICE. Matter and man's Free-will disturb the System: But if the Constitution be the effect of God's Will, as his Lordship holds it is; and the mark of his Wisdom, as all mankind hold with him; Does not that Wisdom require that his Will should

not be defeated? Would it not be defeated, if the disorders occasioned by the perversity of his creatures were not remedied and set right? And is not A REMEDY the clearest mark of perfect goodness and justice?

Take it in another light. Free-will croffes that Confliction, which God, by establishing, shews he intended should take place. This present disturbance could not have been prevented, because, according to my Lord and his ill-used Poet, it was necessary to the schemes of divine wisdom, that there should be such a creature as MAN:

- "For in the scale of reasoning life, 'tis plain
- "There must be, somewhere, such a rank as man."

The consequence is, that the disorder will be bereafter rectified.

Had Man indeed been made unnecessarily; and had this Man broke in upon God's general System, his Lordship might have had some pretence to say, as he does, that God meant the System should not be further pursued; that is, that the scheme which annexes happiness to virtue, and misery to vice, should remain in its present condition of an incomplete Dispensation, to all eternity. But since Man is acknowledged to be a necessary part of a general System, complete in all its members, it is nonsense to talk of God's not meaning the particular System should be further pursued, when that surther pursuit is only to bring it to its natural period; short of which, it would remain unfinished, nay, unformed.

He goes on. We know what WISDOM and POWER are. We know both intuitively, and by the help of our fenjes, that such as we conceive them to be, such they appear in the WORK; and therefore we know demonstratively that such they are in the WORKER.

And do we not know what GOODNESS and JUSTICE are? And by the very same means? Do we not intuitively, and by the kelp as our senses know, that such as we conceive them to be, such they appear in the work, namely, in that constitution of things, which, his Lordship tells us, annexes happiness to virtue, and misery to vice? And may we not demonstratively collect from thence that such they are in the worker? since this Constitution, his Lordship tells us again, is the effect of God's will. On his own principles, therefore, applied to his own state of the reasoning a posteriori, it appears, that God is of infinite goodness and justice, as well as of infinite wisdom and power.

But to give AUTHORITY to his partial reasoning (the usual support of all partialities), he makes Anaxagoras instruct us, what we are to think of this matter. "Should you ask Anaxagoras (says he) what goodness is, or "justice? He might bid you, perhaps, turn your eyes inward, first; "then, survey mankind; observe the wants of individuals, the benefits of society, and, from these particulars, frame the general notions of good-"noss and justice. He might go a step surther: and add, this is buman goodness and buman justice, such as we can comprehend, such as we can exercise, and such as the supreme mind has made it both our duty and interest to exercise, by the constitution of the human system, and by the relations which arise in it: from all which our notions of goodness and justice result, and are compounded."

We know then, according to our mock Anaxagoras, what goodness and justice are, as certainly as what Wisdom and Power are: Since this quaternion of Attributes are all known by the fame means and by no other: we know both intuitively and by the help of our senses, that such as we conceive them to be, fuch they appear in the work. For he bids us turn our eyes inward; then furvey mankind; and lastly, observe how reason, from the constitution of buman nature, confirms our intuitive knowledge, and that which we gain by the help of our fenfes.—But what does all this fignify, if Anaxagoras or his Lordship be in an humour of concluding against their own premisses? Hear then how the speech ends,-" Of divine goodness " and divine justice, might this Philosopher conclude, I AM UNABLE TO "FRAME ANY ADEQUATE NOTIONS "." What? Unable to frame those notions which God, by his moral Conflitation, has put into our hands; and by the declaration of his WILL has taught us to apply? Yes, he bids us conclude, that we are unable to frame any adequate notion of divine GOOD-NESS and JUSTICE, and yet, on the force of the very fame reasoning, to conclude as steadily, that we are able to frame an adequate notion of divine WISDOM and POWER.—This old Philosopher, I suppose, was not brought in to be laughed at, like his drunken Church-Helores +; yet, he plays

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. IV. p. 116, 117.

<sup>† —&</sup>quot; far be it from me to wish (says his Lordship) that the race of Metaphysicians and Casuists should increase.—But since there will be such men, it is very reasonable to wish that they may serve to the same good purpose that the Helotes, the drunken slaves, did at Sparta," &c. Vol. V. p. 446.

the fool to admiration.—We do know, says Anaxagoras, what Goodness and Justice are: we know both intuitively, and by the help of our senses, that such as we conceive them to be, such they appear in the work; and therefore we do not know that such they are in the worker.

Might I be permitted to address myself to this Renegado Sophist, I would say,—Your brethren, the antient Philosophers, reasoned a posteriori in this manner, "Can you think there is wijdom and power in you, and none in your Maker?"—By no means. They reasoned well.—Let me ask you then, is there goodness and justice in you, and none in your Maker?" His answer, I suppose, would be the same. But, prompted by his Lordship, into whose service he is now entered, he adds, That, from buman goodness and justice we cannot come to the nature of the divine. What should hinder us, I pray you? Is it not from our intuitive conception of our own wijdom and power that we gain an adequate idea of God's? Are wisdom and power more perfect, as they are found in man, than goodness and justice? If therefore the imperfection of these attributes in Man hinder our acquiring an adequate idea of those in God, we can have no adequate idea of his wisdom and power: If the imperfection does not hinder, then we may have an adequate idea of his goodness and justice.

But, the inference to God's power and wisdom, his Lordship says, is supported by what men see of the effects of them, in his Works; the order and harmony of the physical System. Do we not see likewise the effects of God's goodness and justice, in the order and harmony of the moral, in the happiness that naturally attends virtue, and the misery consequent on vice? And is not the moral System as much God's Work, as the physical?

Thus, we fee, that by the very reasoning, his Lordship EMPLOYS to prove the natural attributes, and by the very method he PRESCRIBES to us for proving the moral attributes, we have demonstrated the moral with a precision and a certainty, at least equal to the natural. His Lordship seems to have been aware of the event; and therefore when he had set us at defiance, he tried to put the change upon us, under pretence of reminding us, that the moral attributes should be examined by, or applied to, the constitution of the world and the state of mankind in it. I had full as much reason to be aware of his Lordship. And therefore in stating

the question, at my entrance on the subject, I obviated this miscrable Sophism. I call it by no better name, because it is not the constitution of the world or the flate of mankind in it, but the constitution of the MORAL SYSTEM, or the nature of Virtue and Vice as they naturally operate to produce happiness and misery, by which God's moral attributes are to be tried and afcertained. But this, which, by a steady light, gives us an uniform view, he would have us turn from; to contemplate that obscure, disturbed, and shifting scene, the actual state of vice and virtue, of misery and happiness, amongst men. That is, he would have us conclude concerning God's nature, not from his VOLUNTARY CONSTITUTION of things, but from the BREACHES in that Constitution made by the abuse of man's free-will: which yet (when he is arguing for an equal providence) he again and again confesses ought not to be charged upon God; and declaims violently against the folly of those who impute the effects of that Though here (in his various attempts to blot out the idea of God's moral attributes) he be full of the diforders of the moral System, confidered as part of God's defign.

But fince I have mentioned his arguments for an equal providence, I should be unjust to my argument, if I concealed from the Reader, another of his contradictions.—He had Man's future State as well as God's moral attributes to throw out of the religious World; or, to speak more properly, he had Religion to overturn, by taking away its very essence: and as the irregularities in the present administration of God's moral Providence stood in the way of his first attempt; and the confishency of the moral System itself in the way of the other; when he argues against a future State, You would think there were no irregularities; and when he argues against the MORAL ATTRIBUTES, You would think there was no consistency.

We now come to his Lordship's particular objections against the moral attributes. One of them is that they are BOUNDED.

"They [the Divines] go further. As God is perfect, and man very imperfect, they talk of his infinite goodness and justice, as of his infinite without and power; though the latter may preserve their nature without any conceivable bounds, and the former must cease to be what they are, unless we conceive them BOUNDED. Their nature implies necessarily a limitation in the exercise of them. Thus then the moral attributes, according to this Theology, requires infinitely more of God to man than Vol. I.

"men are able, or would be obliged if they were able, to exercise to one another: greater profusion in bestowing benefits and rewards, greater rigour in punishing offences \*."

You have here his Lordship's own words; and nothing less could induce any one to think so disadvantageously of this Philosopher of the first head, as they necessarily imply. Let us consider the premisses, and examine the inferences both implied and expressed.

He fays, t. That the moral attributes are bounded; 2. That the natural are not bounded. Let us fee to what the first proposition amounts; and how much truth there is in the second.

- 1. The moral attributes are confidered by us as relative to intelligent creatures: The natural are not so confidered. Thus, the goodness and justice when relative to man, are greatly bounded; a certain low degree of reward suffices for his good; a certain low degree of punishment for his evil actions. Let God's goodness and justice respect a higher rank of intelligent Beings, and they will be then less bounded; for greater rewards and punishments will be required: and so on, to the highest rank of intelligent creatures. Yet as the highest is at infinite distance from the Creator, the exercise of the moral attributes, as they bear relation to his intelligent creatures, must be still bounded.
- 2. His second proposition is, that the natural attributes are not bounded. It is true, these cannot be considered as relative to God's intelligent creatures; yet since, in their exercise, they must be considered as relative to his Creation at large; and since Creation, however immense, is not infinite, the natural attributes so considered are not infinite: but if not infinite, they are bounded. There is no difference therefore, in the exercise of God's attributes, between the moral and the natural, save only in the degree.

But if we confider God's *moral* and *natural* attributes more abstractedly, not as they are *in the exercise*, and relative to intelligent Beings, and to actual Creation, but as they are in his nature, then they are both *unbounded*. Thus we see his Lordship's notable distinction is both imaginary and useless.

However, let us give him all he afks; and then see what he will be able to infer from it.

- 1. His first inference seems to be this: "As the moral attributes are bounded, and not infinite like the natural, our idea of them must be obfeure and inadequate." What! because they are better adapted to human contemplation? as things bounded certainly are better adapted than things infinite. Our idea of such of God's attributes as bear relation to a Being, whose nature and properties we know, namely MAN, must needs be more adequate and better defined than the idea of such attributes as bear relation to Beings, whose nature and properties we know not, namely the gross of those which make up the UNIVERSE.
- 2. His other inscrence, is expressed in these words: Thus then the moral cttributes, according to this Theology, requires infinitely more of God to man than men are able, or would be obliged if they were able, to exercise to one another. To fay, the moral attributes, according to Christian Theology, or, as he is pleased to call it, artificial Theology, requires INFINITELY more, is an extravagant hyperbole. To fay, it requires more, is true. And for this plain reason: the relation between Creator and Creature is much more intimate than that, between Fellow-creatures; therefore the divine goodness is more abundant: The relation between Lord and Servant is more appropriate than that between Fellow-servants; therefore the divine juilice is more severe. And had it not been deemed too presuming to refer his Lordship to Scripture for instruction (especially in a matter where the abuse of Scripture was chiefly intended) I might there have pointed to a Parable which would have fet him right: and has always kept artificial Theology, whatever he might think, from going wrong. But infinite, when applied to the exercise of a moral attribute in reference to Man, is his Lordship's nonsense, with due reverence be it spoken, not the nonsense of artificial Divines. They were not ignorant, that the rule infirmiorem vel deteriorem partem sequitur consequentia, held as well in Morals as in Logic. Though God be infinite, man is finite; and therefore, with respect to man, the exertion of a moral attribute is finite, not infinite. His Lordship himself saw something of this, as appears by his own words. The nature of the moral attributes implies necessarily a limitation in the use of them. And why would he suppose, Divines could not see as far into this matter as himfelf?

But if there be an error in artificial Theology he is as fure, at one time or other, to espouse it; as he is ready at all times to calumniate the Divine who holds it. Men, in their ill-advised zeal to defend the Scripture doc-

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trine of the Son's Divinity, were not always sufficiently careful in selecting their arguments. Amongst such as had perhaps been better let alone, they employed this; That as man's offence was against an infinite Being, it required an infinite satisfaction; which none but such a Being could give. Now his Lordship, we see, espouses this very principle to discredit God's moral attributes, and the artificial Theology of Jesus Christ; which speaks, indeed, of infinite rewards; but not as matter of due, but of grace.

As the being bounded is one of his Lordship's objections against the moral attributes, so the being merely HUMAN, is another.

"After Dr. CLARKE (fays he) has repeated over and over, that all the moral attributes are the same in God as in our ideas; and that he, who denies them to be so, may as well deny the divine physical attributes, the Doctor insists only on two of the former, on those of justice and goodness. He was much in the right to contract the generality of his affertion. The absurdity of ascribing TEMPERANCE, for instance, or FORTITUDE, to God, would have been too gross, and too visible even to eyes that prejudice had blinded the most. But that, of ascribing justice and goodness to him, according to our notions of them, might be better covered, and was enough for his purpose, THOUGH NOT LESS REALLY ABSURD \*."

Which shall we most admire: His Knowledge or his Ingenuity? Or shall we follow the advice of his own Motto +, and Wander at nothing?

When men contemplate what they call, moral virtue, or the attributes of Humanity, they divide them into two classes, persectly distinct from one another. In the first are comprized those which belong to man under the idea of a free intelligent Being, such as goodness and justice: in the second, those which belong to him under the idea of a creature of his own frail species, such as temperance and fortitude. The first belong to all free intelligent Beings; the latter, only to such a Being as man: Those arise out of the nature of free intelligence, and so are common to all: These, from the impersections of a very inferior creature, and so are peculiar to Humanity; for we easily conceive a higher Order of free created Intelligences, in which the moral virtues of the second class have no place. They are superior to the impressions of sear, and so have no room to exert

f rtitude: They are removed from the temptation of excess, and so have no need to exercise temperance. Now when CLARKE, after other Divines, had said that the mora! attributes are the same in God as in our ideas, What Attributes could they possibly mean but those of the first class; those which belong to Beings under the idea of free Intelligences? STUPID as his Lordship is pleased to make Divines, they could never blunder at such a rate as to conceive, that those virtues or moral attributes, which proceed from the imperfection of the Creature, might belong in any manner to the Creator, whom they supposed to be all persea. They held, with his Lordship, and they will hold without him, that the great God is infinitely wife and powerful. Were they then in any danger to give him temperance, which implied his being obnoxious to folly; or fortitude, which argued impuifauce? Infinite wisdom, therefore, and infinite power, exclude from God the very ideas of temperance and fortitude. But do infinite wisdom and infinite power exclude from God the ideas of goodness and justice? On the contrary, his Lordship, as we shall see presently, is reduced to the poor shift of owning goodness and justice to be contained in infinite wisdom and power; after he had faid, as here he does, That the afcribing goodness and justice to God is no less really absurd than the aferibing temperance and fortitude to bim.

—But CLARKE contracted the generality of the assertion to serve a purpose. I think he did: and for one of the best purposes in the world, that of COMMON SENSE. Had his Lordship been pleased to contract himself on the same principle, he might have passed, perhaps, for a greater Philosopher; though he had certainly been a less Writer.

But then, if you ask, What purpose his Lordship had to serve, when he used the equivocal word ALL, (which may signify either all of one kind, or all of every kind) where he observes, Clarke holds, that ALL the moral attributes are the same in God, &c? I answer, it was to give himself the poor pretence to say, that Clarke afterwards contrasted his generality, or, in other words, that he contradicted himself.

A third objection against the moral attributes is, "That PASSIONS and AFFECTIONS mix with our goodness and justice; which therefore cannot be supposed to be the same in kind with God's; though our wisdom and power, with which no passions or affections mix, must be the same in kind with his."

Were passion and affection inseparable from human goodness and justice, the objection might seem to have some force; indeed, not much even then. But how miserable must the objection appear to those who see, as all men may, that they are separable? Separable, I mean, in practice as well as speculation: (Of which we have at present one great Example at least, in a high Tribunal where they shine the most.) So that the true idea even of human goodness and justice excludes all passion and affection. What hinders then our rising, from that idea, to Divine goodness and justice, any more than our rising, from the idea of human wisdom and power, to the Divine wisdom and power; and from perceiving, that as well the moral, as the natural attributes, are the same in kind, both in God and man?

But this is not all that may be fairly said in favour of our adequate idea of God's moral attributes, when compared with the natural. For though PASSION mixes not with the human attributes of wisdom and power, yet something else does, much more difficult to be separated than passion, from the human attributes of goodness and justice, I mean the instrumenta-LITY OF MATTER. We can conceive nothing of buman power without the use of such an instrument: yet this, by his Lordship's own confession, does not hinder us from rising from the idea of our own wisdom and power, to the wisdom and power of God; nor from seeing that they are the same in kind. Why then should the other foreign combination hinder us from seeing that goodness and justice are the same in kind?

Still, further. The MANNER of knowing in God, on which depends his natural attribute of wisdom, is confessedly different from what it is in man; and, at the same time, is a thing of which we have no conception: yet this, according to his Lordship's account, does not hinder our attaining to an adequate idea of divine wisdom, though it rises only from what we see of the buman.

How happens it then, that, in both these cases, notwithstanding the foreign mixture of the instrumentality of matter, and the manner of knowing, we attain an adequate idea of God's wisdom and power? His Lordship will tell you, it is by separating what is foreign, from what is native to the ideas of wisdom and power. And shall not I have as much credit with my Reader, when I tell him, we acquire an adequate idea of God's good-

ness and justice, by separating from the idea of human goodness and justice the foreign mixture of passion and affection?

But his Lordship has a greater quarrel than all this, with the MORAL ATTRIBUTES. They give rise to embarrassed questions, dishonourable to God, and mischievous to Religion.

"As they [the Divines] modeled God's government on a human plan, of they conceived his perfections, moral as well as physical, by human ideas.—Thus God was said to be the first good: but then the general notion or abstract idea of this good was not only taken from human goodness, but was considered too with little or no other relation than to man—A question arose therefore on these hypotheses, How could evil come into a system of which God was the author?—this question made a further hypothesis necessary; another first God, another coeternal and coequal principle was introduced to solve it; a sirst cause of all evil, as the other was of all good \*."

The false representation of this fact I reserve for another occasion: the false inference from it is what I now propose to consider.

His Lordship supposes, that the notion of God's moral attributes gave birth to an insoluble question concerning the origin of evil; and that this occasioned the invention of the mischievous hypothesis of the two Principles. Who would have suspected all this evil to arise from the first Good! Yet so it was: And therefore the notion of such a good must be false; or at least, very burtful.

I. As to the first, if his Lordship's inserence be right, it will unsettle all useful knowledge; because there is no great principle, either in physics, or in natural Theology, but which, if we be not on our guard, and wise enough to stop at the extent of our ideas, will lead us into inextricable difficulties: As one might instance in a point that arises out of both the sciences, physics and morals together—The agreement between free-will and prescience. This is a well-known case: And as his Lordship pretends to untie this knot, which hath so long kept the learned world intangled, let us examine his great talents on what is worthy of them. "Our ideas (says "he) of divine intelligence and wisdom may be neither fantastical nor false, and yet God's MANNER of knowing may be so different from ours, that fore-knowledge, as we call it improperly in bim, may be consistent

"with the contingency of events; although that which we call properly fore-knowledge in our felves, be not so \*."

I have two or three remarks to make on these words.

- 1. Our ideas of God's moral attributes, his goodness and justice, he makes fantastical and false, on account of difficulties arising from them: yet God's natural attributes, his intelligence and wisdom, may, he says, be neither fantastical nor false, though a difficulty as great arises from them; namely, the apparent discordancy between free-will and prescience.
- 2. My second remark is, that his solution is more fantastic and false than the wildest chimera of School-metaphysics. The difficulty in reconciling God's prescience to man's free-will does not arise from our ignorance in God's MANNER OF KNOWING, but from God's ACTUAL KNOWLEDGE.
- 3. My third remark is, that his Lordship, who is here so penetrating, that he can casily reconcile prescience and free-will, is yet, in another place, so cloudy, that he cannot see how an "equal providence and free agency may "stand together +."
- 4. My last remark is (and it rises out of the foregoing) that where Religion is not concerned, his Lordship sees no difficulty in any part of the system of Creation: But as toon as ever Religion appears, then difficulties flart up by dozens. Of this, take an instance from, as it will lead us back to, the case in hand. Our ideas of God's moral attributes, he says, must needs be false, because the conceiving of them by human goodness and justice raises up the question of the origin of evil, considered morally. And does not the conceiving of God's physical attributes, by human wisdom and power, lead to the question of the origin of evil, confidered naturally? Yet our ideas of the physical attributes are neither false nor fantaslical. But to this, his Lordship replies, Evil, considered naturally, is not real, but apparent only. Why so? Because it contributes to the greater good of the whole. May not the same thing be said of Evil, confidered morally? Nay, hath it not been actually faid, and proved too, on the same principles? It follows then, that they are either both real, or both fantastic.

In a word, the truth is no more than this, Presumptuous man knows not where to stop: he would penetrate even to the Arcana of the Godhead:

" For Fools rush in, where Angels fear to tread."

And

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. V. p. 525.

<sup>†</sup> See my observations on this Proposed difficulty in the Appendix to the Fifth Book of the Divine Legation.

## APPEND. OF MOSES DEMONSTRATED. 364

And this impious humour it was which gave birth to the abfurd hypothesis of Two PRINCIPLES. But is the folly to be charged upon our idea of the moral attributes? Ridiculous! We see it's cause is in vanity and self-conceit: passions that operate alike on all Systems; and find materials to gratify their extravagance, equally in the physical as in the moral attributes of the Deity.

II. As to his Lordship's second inference, that this idea is at least productive of much mischief, and therefore it would be better to have none at all; Let me observe, that the idea of God's very existence is productive of much mischief, even all the mischiefs of Superstition. Is it therefore better to be without a God? Who besides his Lordship would say so \*? Why then should we think it better to be without the idea of the moral attributes, even though the evils it produced were necessary? But that is not the case. They are casual only: the issue of pride and presumption; which the idea of the moral attributes does not at all influence.

III. However, these, if not hurtful, are useless; and this is his next cavil. "Infinite wislow and power (says his Lordship) have made things " as they are: how goodness and justice required they should be made is " neither coram judice, nor to any rational purpose to enquire +." To inquire how the universe of things should be made, which refers to God's power and wisdom, serves indeed to no reasonable purpose. But to inquire concerning our own state and condition in this Universe, which refers to God's goodness and justice, is either coram judice, or we were sent into the world to no purpose. His Lordship's sophistry seems to confound two things that plain sense hath always distinguished; viz. our own business from other men's. When the King holds a Session of justice, 'tis not for every Particular to inquire into all his measures; but every Particular, who is fummoned to attend the Court, is much concerned to know how he himself shall be dealt with. His Lordship, indeed, is ready to say, We are not summoned; that is, we are not accountable creatures. But this is begging the question.

Again, to inquire, much more to prescribe, bow things should be made, in any particular System, has all the folly, presumption, and impiety, which his Lordship charges upon it: Because the Parts having a relation

<sup>\*</sup> He indeed fays, be bad rather be an Atheift than acknowledge the Christian Theology; and we may believe him. See vol. iv. p. 34.

<sup>+</sup> Vol. V. p. 363.

to the Whole, an all-wise Architect makes them in conformity to that Whole, of which, we know nothing; and therefore our only conclusion should be, that the Part we do know, is constituted for the best. But it is another thing to say (which is all that Divines have said, how differently soever his Lordship is pleased to represent the matter) that God will act equitably with his rational Creation, by distributing good and evil to them according to their deserts; because this does not depend upon any Whole, of which we know nothing, but on his attributes of goodness and justice, of which, we know enough to determine with certainty concerning his sinal dealing with every rank of free and reasonable Beings. In this case to pass our judgment is so far from solly or impiety, that not to do it would be stupidity or hypocrisy. To call this proceeding, as his Lordship does, the patching or botching up one System with another, is a gross misrepresentation.

AT LENGTH, he ends just where he set out, That we have no IDEAS of the moral attributes at all. "Upon the whole matter (fays he) we may " conclude fafely from error, and in direct opposition to CLARKE, that so goodness and justice in God cannot be conceived, without manifest presumption and impiety, to be the same as in the ideas we frame of these perfections when " we confider them in men, or when we reason about them abstractedly in them-" selves; but that in the supreme Governor of the World they are something "TRANSCENDENT, and of which we cannot make any true judgment, nor " argue with any certainty about them \*." It was for jargon like this that a famous Schoolman got the name of the TRANSCENDENT DOCTOR. Yet he affures us that he is justified by the authority of St. PAUL and Dr. BARROW. These two great Divines (fays he) are on my side +. Two noble pporters, (it must be confessed) to his Lordship's Atchievements! One thing I have observed, which may be worth reflecting on-A strange propenfity in FREE-THINKERS to mistake their enemies for their friends, and as strange a propensity in the CLERGY to mistake their friends for their enemies. This different turn is odd enough: and, at first view, seems a little mysterious; when, perhaps, there may be no more in it than this.—Free-thinkers have invented the trick, to amufe the Clergy, in order to raise their suspicions, and excite their jealousy against their best Friends: And, unhappily, the Clergy have, now and then, fallen into the snare.

But, after all, who would expect that the leather-dreffing Pontiff of all men should have been thought worthy to support the first Philosophy! What has St. PAUL done at last to deserve this honour? Why, in answer to the objections against God's dispensations in the religious World, the Apostle refers us, " for intire satisfaction, to the incomprehensible wisdom of God, "who frequently in the course of his providence ordereth things in mc-" thods transcending our abilities to discover-or to trace +." This folution, which is here extolled for its great modely, is referred to, in another place, for it's greater impudence 1.

But St. PAUL says, we must have recourse to the incomprehensible wisdom In good time. But how does this prove that, in Paul's opinion, of God. we have no adequate idea of the moral attributes? Unless the quality of an Agent, and his action, be one and the same thing.

Dr. BARROW, I presume, will stand his Lordship in no better stead than St. Paul. " As the dealings of every wife man (says the Doctor) are some-"times founded upon maxims, and admit justifications not obvious or pe-" netrable by vulgar conceit; fo may God act according to rules of wisdom " and justice, which it may be quite impossible by our faculties to appre-66 hend, or with our means to descry. As there are natural modes of Being er and operation, so there may be prudential and moral modes of pro-" ceeding, far above our reach, peculiar objects of divine wildom not to 66 be understood by any creature, especially by creatures who stand in the "lowest form of intelligence; one remove from beasts. In fine, those "rules of equity and experience which we in our transactions with one " another do use, if they be applied to the dealings of God will be found "very incongruous or deficient, the case being vastly altered from that in-"finite distance in nature and state between God and us, and from the "immense difference which his relations towards us have from our rela-"tions to one another §." What now has all this (which relates only to the incomprehensible nature of G.d's providence) to do with our inadequate ideas of bis moral attributes? At least, if his Lordship will contend, that the man who thinks God's providence incomprehenfible, must needs think our ideas of his moral attributes inadequate, he must go a step further, and confess, that Barrow supposed our ideas of the natural attributes to be inadequate like-

wife:

<sup>\*</sup>This is the title with which he dignifies SAINT PAUL, in his IVth vol.p. 423. What Pity was it, his Lordship did not know that Theodores had called him a downright Cobler. + Val. V. p. 360. † Vol. III. p. 307.

wise; for he puts both on the same sooting. As there are NATURAL modes of Being and operation (says the Doctor), so there may be prudential and MORAL modes proceeding far above our reach. But as this would be going too far; farther than the FIRST PHILOSOPHY will allow of, I suppose his Lordship would be content to give up this quotation from Barrow, as nothing to the purpose.

AT LAST, and when you would least expect it, Common-sense and Common-sentiments return. And God's moral attributes, after much ado, are allowed to be in Nature. "Where Religions (fays his Lordship) which " pretend to be revealed, prevail, a new character of God's goodness arises— " an artificial goodness which stands often in the place of the NATURAL "." And this, after he had so often told us, that we have no adequate idea of any goodness at all. Well, but as aukwardly as God's natural goodness comes (and, in every fense) a posteriori, yet it comes, and deserves to be made welcome. "All the knowledge (fays he) that God has given us "the means to acquire, and therefore all he defigned we should have of " his phyfical and MORAL nature and attributes, is derived from bis works, and " from the TENOUR OF THAT PROVIDENCE by which he governs them †." You will observe the words—the tenour of that Providence—I have detected the fophistry of them before, where I have stated the meaning of the terms, God's works. I bid you observe them now, to judge of the following climax (if I may so call it), or his walk down stairs. The wisdom " is not so often discernible by us [in God's works] as the power of God. " nor the goodness as the wisdom t." As scanty and slender as the knowledge is of God's moral attributes, which his Lordship here allows us to collect from his works, yet it flatly contradicts what his System had obliged him over and over to maintain; particularly in the following words-Of divine goodness and divine justice (says his Lordship in the person of Anaxagoras) I am unable to frame any adequate notions §, from God's works.

This Mock-concession is again repeated, and as carefully guarded. By natural Theology (says his Lordship) we are taught to acknowledge and adore the infinite wisdom and power of God, which he has manifested to us in some degree or other in every part, even the most minute, of his Creation. By that too, we are taught to ascribe Goodness and sustice to him, wherever be intended we should so ascribe them, that is,

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. V. p. 431.

<sup>‡</sup> Vol. V. p. 335.

<sup>†</sup> Vol. V. p. 523, 524. § Vol. IV. p. 116, 117.

<sup>«</sup> wherever

"" wherever either his works, or the difpensations of his providence, do as "" NECESSARILY communicate these notions to our minds, as those of wis"" dom and power are communicated to us, in the whole extent of both "."

What his Lordship would have you infer from this is, that we are no WHERE taught to ascribe goodness and justice to God; since the dispensations of bis providence do No WHERE, in his Lordship's opinion, NECESSARILY communicate these notions. But allow him his premises, that neither God's Works nor Dispensations do NECESSARILY communicate to us the notions of God's goodness and justice; Would his conclusion follow, that therefore we are no where taught in these works and dispensations to ascribe those attributes unto him? Suppose these works and dispensations did only pro-BABLY communicate these notions to our minds; will not this probability teach us to ascribe goodness and justice to him? God hath so framed the constitution of things, that man, throughout his whole conduct in life, should be necessarily induced to form his judgment on appearances and probable arguments. Why then not in this, as well as the rest? or rather, why not in this, above the rest? if so be God indeed had not (as I have shewn he hath) necessarily communicated these notions—But still, what is this to our adequate idea of the moral attributes, the point in question? God's not necessarily communicating, affects only the reality, not the precision of the idea. All therefore we learn by the observation, which would thus put the change upon us, is, that his Lordship has a very strong inclination, that God should have neither goodness nor justice; so far as they carry with them any disposition to reward or punish. For as to the Attributes themfelves, divested of their consequences; and undisturbed by our IMPIOUS IMITATION +, he has little or no quarrel with them. His Lordship certainly never intended to teach the common Reader more of the fecrets of his Philosophy than what NECESSARILY arises from his professions. But to make God treat Mankind in this manner, to communicate to their minds the appearance of Attributes which he has not, is drawing an image of the Deity from his Lordship's own likeness; the very fault he so much censures in Divines. But if it must needs be, that God is to be represented either after Them, or after his Lordship, I should chuse to have the

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. V. p. 527.

 $<sup>\</sup>dagger$  Our obligation to imitate god is a false and profane doctrine. Vol. V. p. 65.

Clergy's God, though made out of no better stuff than ARTIFICIAL THEOLOGY (because this gives him both goodness and justice), rather than his Lordship's God, which has neither; although composed of the more refined materials of the first Philosophy. In the mean time, I will not deny but He may be right in what he says, That men conceive of the Deity, more bumano; and that his Lordship's God and the Clergy's God are equally faithful copies of themselves.

In a word, if God teaches, whether clearly or obscurely, he certainly intended, we should learn. And what we get even by appearances, is real knowledge, upon his Lordship's own principles. For if TRUTH be, as he assure us it is, of so precarious a nature as to take it's Being from our own System, it must be real as far as it appears. "Our knowledge (fays this great Philosopher) is so dependent on our own system, that a great part of it would not be knowledge perhaps, but error in any other "."

It is thus he involves himself in perpetual contradictions: And it will be always thus, when men dispute (for believe they cannot †) against common notices, and the most obvious truths; such as liberty of will; the certainty of knowledge; and this, which (I reckon) obtrudes itself upon us as forcibly as either, the MORAL ATTRIBUTES OF THE DEITY.

But the game is now on foot, let us follow it close. We have unravelled him through all his windings; and we may soon expect to see him take shelter in the thick cover of God's incomprehensible Nature; and rather than allow (more than in jest) the *moral attributes* of the Deity, ready to resolve all his Attributes, both *natural* and *moral*, into one INDEFINITE PERFECTION.

But fost. Not yet. We must come to it by degrees and regular advances. First, the moral attributes are to be resolved into the natural.

"If they [the natural and moral attributes] may be confidered feparately, as we are apt to confider them; and if the LATTER, and every thing we ascribe to these, are not to be RESOLVED rather into the former; into his infinite intelligence, wisdom, and power ‡."——It is yet, we see, but a question; and that only, whether the moral attributes are not

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. ifi. p. 356.

<sup>†</sup> Hear what he himself says of free-will. The free-will of man no one can deny he bas, without LYING, or renouncing his intuitive knowledge. Vol. V. p. 406.

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. V. p. 523, 524.

to be resolved into the natural. In the next passinge the matter is determined. "I think (and what he thinks, he holds it but reasonable we should all think) that the moral attributes of the supreme Being are absorbed in bis wisdom; that we should consider them only as different modifications of this physical attribute \*."

We are not yet near the top. However, before we go any higher, let us set together his inconsistences, as they appear in this situation. Sometimes the ideas of divine wisdom are better determined than those of divine goodness †: And sometimes again (as in the place before us), the divine goodness is the same as wisdom, and therefore, doubtless, inotwithstanding his Lordship) the idea of it as well defined. Now, of all these assertions, to which will he stick? To which, do you ask? To none of them, longer than they will slick to him: And straggling, undisciplined Principles, picked up at adventures, are not apt to stick long to any side: As soon as they begin to incline towards the enemy, he has done with them.——Come, if you will needs have it, you shall. The secret is this. The attributes are mere names; and there is an end of them. All that remains, worth speaking of, is one undefined eternal Reason: and so the Farce concludes.

"The moral ATTRIBUTES (says he) are barely NAMES that we give to various manifestations of the infinite wisdom of one simple uncompounded being §."

"Of divine goodness and divine justice I am unable to frame any ade"quate notions; and instead of conceiving such distinct moral attributes in the
"supreme Being, we ought, perhaps, to conceive nothing more than this, that
"THERE ARE VARIOUS APPLICATIONS OF ONE ETERNAL REASON, WHICH
"IT BECOMES US LITTLE TO ANALYZE INTO ATTRIBUTES "."

To this miserable refuge is his Lordship reduced, to avoid DIVINE JUSTICE. But why, the Reader will say, did he not speak out at first, and end his quarrel with the moral attributes at once? Your humble servant for that. Barefaced NATURALISM has no such charms as may make her received when and wherever she appears. There is need of much preparation, and not a little disguise, before you can get her admitted even to what is called good company.——But then, you will say, after he had re-

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. V. p. 335. † Vol. V. p. 341. 526. ‡ Vol. IV. p. 116, 117. § Vol. V. p. 453. 

† Vol. IV. p. 117.

folved to speak out, Why did he stop again in his career; and, when his premisses are general against all attributes, his conclusion became particular. against the moral only? Not without reason, I assure you. He had need of the natural attributes, to fet up against the moral; and therefore had himself analyzed this eternal reason into the specific attributes of wisdom and power. But when he saw his Adversaries might, by the same way, analyze it into goodness and justice, he then thought fit to pick a quarrel with his own method: But it was to be done obliquely. And hence arises all this embarrass and tergiversation. He would willingly, if his Readers would be so satisfied, analyze the eternal reason into wisdom and power: but there he would stop; and leave the other side of the eternal reason. unanalyzed: and if goodness and justice should chance to start out, he has a trick to resolve and absorb them into wisdom and power, as only different modifications of the physical attributes. But if this should revolt his Readers. and they expect equal measure; then, rather than give them back the goodness and justice which he has been at all this pains to proscribe, he will throw wisdom and power after them, and resolve all into the ONE ETERNAL REASON.

Bashful Naturalism has now thrown aside her Veil; and is, we see, ready to face down and desy her Rival; whom till now she was content to counterseit. Give me leave, therefore, to repress this last effort of her insolence and of his Lordship's superior Wisdom. He now tells us, "that these pretended attributes, as they are commonly specified, and distinguished into natural and moral, are a mere human siction; invented, by aid of analogy from the actions, passions, and qualities observable in man: and that the simple nature of Deity is one uniform persection; of which, Infinity being the base, we can have no distinct idea or conception."

To this I reply, that it is indeed true, that these specific attributes, from which we deduce all our knowledge of the nature and will of God, are formed on analogy, and bear relation to ourselves. But then we say such attributes are not on that account the less real or essential. The light of the Sun is not in the orb itself, what we see it in the Rainbow. There it is one candid, uniform, persect blaze of glory: here we separate it's Persection into the various attributes of red, yellow, blue, purple, and what else the subtle optician so nicely distinguishes. But still the solar light is not less real in the Rainbow, where it's rays become thus untwisted, and each disfering

fering thread distinctly seen in its effect, than while they remained united and ancorporated with one another in the Sun. Just so it is with the divine Nature: it is one simple individual Persection in the Godhead himself: but when refracted and divaricated, in passing through the medium of the human mind, it becomes power, justice, mercy; which are all separately and ADEQUATELY represented to the understanding. But that his Lordship so frequently discards his own principles, I should hope he would submit to this illustration, since he owns that we see the Deity in a restelled, not in a direct light.

It is a true light then, and not a false: and the knowledge which it conveys is real, not santastic: For mirrors are not wont to reslect the species of the mind's visions, but things exterior and substantial. To turn us, therefore, from God's attributes, (though the indirect, yet the well-defined, Image of him) because they discover something to us we may not like, a HELL and a future judgment, to turn us, I say, from these, to the undefined eternal reason, is doing like certain French Philosophers, who, when they quarrelled with Newton's Theory of light and colours, contrived to break the Prism by which it was demonstrated.

And now, Reader, let me ask, Who is there that deserves the name of MAN, and will not own, that they are the MORAL ATTRIBUTES of the Deity which make him AMIABLE; just as the natural attributes make him revered?—What is his Lordship's quarrel with the God of Moses and Paul, but that he is made unamiable, and represented without goodness or justice? Their God, therefore, he expressly tells us, shall not be his God +. Well then: He has his God to make. And who would not expect to find him, when made by such a Workman, a God of infinite goodness and justice? No such matter: These qualities come not out of his Lordship's hands; so, cannot enter into the composition of his God: They are barely names that men give to various manifestations of the infinite wisdom of one simple uncompounded Being. The pretended want of them in the God of the Jews afforded his Lordship a commodious cavil; for he had Religion to remove out of his way: But when he came to erect Naturalism in it's stead, it had been very inconvenient to give them to his own Idol.

<sup>\*</sup> Vol. V. p. 524.

<sup>† &</sup>quot;Can any man prefume to fay, that the God of Moses or the God of Paul is the true God? &c." Vol. V. p. 567.

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Honest Plutarch, though a Priest, was as warm an enemy to PRIEST-CRAFT as his Lordship. He derives all the evils of Superstition from men's not acquiring the idea of a God infinitely good and just. And proposes this knowledge as the only cure for Superstition. This is consistent. But what would the ancient World have thought of their Philosopher, had his remedy, after hunting for it through a hundred volumes, been a God without any goodness and justice at all?

NATURE tells us, that the thing most desirable is the knowledge of a God whose goodness and justice gives to every man according to his works. His Lordship tells us, that Reason or natural Religion discovers to us no such God. Now, if both speak truth, How much are we indebted to Revelation! Which, when natural Religion failed us, brings us to the knowledge of a God infinitely good and just; and gives us an adequate idea of those attributes! I say no more than his Lordship has confessed.—Christianity, says he, discovers the love of God to man; his infinite justice and goodness.\*

Is this a bleffing to be rejected? His Lordship has no room to say so, fince the discovery is made in that very way, in which, upon his own Principles, it only could be made. He pretends, "We have no other natural way of coming to the knowledge of God but from his works. By these; he says, we gain the idea of his physical attributes; and if there be any thing in his works which feems to contradict those attributes, 'tis only seeming : For as men advance in the knowledge of nature, the difficulties vanish. It is not so, he says, with regard to the moral attributes. There are so many phanomena which contradict thefe, and occasion difficulties never to be cleared up, that they hinder us from acquiring an adequate idea of the moral attributes." Now admitting all this to be true, (for generally, his Lordship's affertions are so extravagant, that they will not even admit a fupposition of their truth, though it be only for argument's sake,) What does it effect but this, the giving additional credit to Revelation? The physical difficulties clear up as we advance in our knowledge of Nature, and we advance in proportion to our diligence and application. But the moral difficulties never clear up, because they rise out of the Whole System of God's moral dispensation; which is involved in clouds and darkness, impenetrable to mortal fight: and all the force of human wit alone will never be able to

draw the veil. The affistance must come from another quarter. It must come, if it comes at all, from the Author of the Dispensation. Well; Revelation hath drawn this veil, and so, removed the darkness which obstructed our attaining an adequate idea of the moral attributes. Shall we yet stand out? And, when we are brought hither upon his Lordship's own principles, still with-hold our affent? Undoubtedly you must. Beware (says he) of a pretended Revelation. Why so? "Because the Religion of nature" is persect and absolute: and therefore Revelation can teach nothing but "what Religion hath already taught "." Strange; Why, Revelation teaches those moral attributes! which you, my Lord, own, natural Religion does not teach——Here we stick.

"Dic aliquem fodes, dic, Quintiliane, colorem:

And here, we are like to stick. His Lordship leaves us in a Riddle. Will you have the solution? It is soolish enough; as the solution of such kind of things generally are. But if the Reader hath kept his good humour, which, I contess, is dissicult amidst all these provocations of impiety, it is enough to make him laugh. I said before, that his Lordship borrowed all his reasoning against Revelation, from such as Tindal, Toland, Collins, Chubb, and Morgan. This solemn argument particularly, of the PERFECTION OF NATURAL RELIGION, and the superseded use of Revelation, he delivers to us just as he found it in Tindal. Now Tindal, who pretended to hold that natural Religion taught both the moral attributes and a future state, had some pretence for saying that it was perfect and absolute. But what pretence has his Lordship to say it after him, who holds that natural Religion taught neither one nor the other? The truth is, he refused no arms against Revelation; and the too eager pursuit of this his old enemy through thick and thin has led him into many of these scrapes.

To fee his Lordship use TINDAL'S ARGUMENTS against Revelation, and for the perfection of Natural Religion, along with his OWN PRINCIPLES of no moral attributes and no future State, must needs give the Reader a very uncommon idea of his abilities: for the first of these principles makes one entire absurdity of all he borrows from Tindal against Revelation; and the second takes away the very pretence for perfection in natural Religion.

His Lordship's friend, Swift, has somewhere or other observed, that no subject in all Literature but Religion could have advanced Toland and Ascill into the class of reputable Authors. Another of his friends seems to think that no subject but Religion could have sunk his Lordship so far below it: If EVER LORD BOLINGBROKE TRIFLES (says Pope), IT WILL BE WHEN HE WRITES ON DIVINITY\*. But such is the sate of Authors, when they chuse to write upon subjects for which they were not qualified either by nature or grace. For it is with authors as with Men: Who can guess which Vessel was made for bonour, and which for dishonour? when sometimes, one and the same is made for both. Even this choice Piece of the FIRST PHILOSOPHY, his Lordship's sacred pages, is ready to be put to very different uses, according to the different tempers in which they have sound his sew Admirers on the one side, and the Public on the other; like the china Utensil in the Dunciad, which one Hero used for a p—pot, and another carried home for his Head-piece.

\* Pope's Works, V. IX. Lett. xiv.

## N O T E S

## ON THE SECOND BOOK

P. 135. [A]. Valla explains the word aidpuroquias by ex hominibus ortos; and, I think, rightly. But our learned Stanley, in his notes to the Persians of Æschylus, understands it otherwise: and that it rather signifies kumana forma præditos. I suppose it appeared harsh to him, that any one could imagine the Gods had buman natures; but the meaning is explained above. Yet the ingenious writer of the Letters concerning mythology, p. 217. fides with our country man, and understands adopunopon; to fignify,-made like a man-or, of the shape and figure of a man. But if we regard the literal meaning of the two simples which make up this compound, we cannot avoid understanding it to signify, being of man's nature. How then does this learned writer support his criticism? By a passage from Hecatæus; who, on pretty much the same occasion, uses (as he supposes) and pure occasion, in the place of αλθρωποφυής; and αλθρωπομόρφος, he thinks, all will agree, must fignify, of the shape and figure of a man. No, not if his own method of interpretation be right: for, if additional (transferred from the literal, to the figurative sense) must signify of man's form, then adjustingous so transferred, must fignify of man's nature. But it is not true, that Hecatæus uses αιθρωπόμορφος in the place of αιθρωποφυής. The propositions of Herodotus and Hecatæus are different, and therefore we may well suppose these two words, in the predicate of each, to be different. Herodotus, speaking of the Persians, fays, they had no statues of their Gods, because they did not believe, with the Greeks, that the Gods had buman natures [abbouropoias i. And Hecatæus, speaking of Moses, says, he permitted no images of the Gods, because he did not hold, with the Gentiles, that God had a buman form [αλθρωπόμορφοι]. And their use of different words, as we shall now see, was with accuracy and discernment; for they were afferting different things. The question between the Persians and the Greeks (who

worshiped many gods in common) was, whether these Gods were partakers of buman nature, αλθρωποφυίας; that is, whether they were dead men deisied. But the question between Moses and the Gentiles, was, whether the God of the universe had a buman form, αλθρωπόμορφος; not whether the gods bad buman natures; for these Gods, the Jews had nothing to do with; they worshiped only the one God: and several of the Gentiles, who had some knowledge of this one God, imagined he might have a buman form. So that we see, the use of these two terms, on the same occasion, is so far from shewing their signification to be the same, as the learned writer supposes, that the occasion demonstrably shews their signification to be different. Let me only observe, it appeared so evident to Eusebius, that the custom of making the statues of the Gods in buman form was an indication of their original from mortality, that he says, so yi τοι αλπθής λόγων βοῦ καὶ κίκραξε, μοσρομον νεγονίναι τὸς δηλεμώνες. Ευχγί. προπαρ. β. γ.

P. 157. [B]. This we are told by Jumblichus: his words are, his words are the his words are t νυν ως φωνή χρησθαι τη παίρρος εκάςοις παρήγελλον, Vit. Pythag. 194. Kust. Ed. Dr. Bentley understands them to figuify, that every one should use bis own mother-tongue. And, indeed, without reading the context, one could scare avoid giving this sense to the passage. VIZZANIUS,-that every one should use the mother-tongue of Crotona; which was the Doric. Of these, the learned Critic fays, which is the true, perhaps all competent readers will not be of one mind, p. 386. But I believe there will be no great difference of opinions amongst those who weigh the following reasons: 1. Jamblichus adds, τὸ γὰρ ξενίζειν εκ εδοκήμαζον; by which I understand him to mean, that the Pythagoric sest did not approve of a foreign or stranger dialett. For if he meant, not the sect in general, but the particulars of which it was composed, the several provincial Greeks who entered into it, no dialett could be called foreign to one or other of them: if he meant the Sect, which we may suppose had a dialett peculiar and consecrated to the Community, all, but that, was foreign to it; and the expression becomes proper and pertinent. 2. Jamblichus, in the same place, tells us, that Pythagoras valued the Doric above the other Greek Dialects, as most agreeable to the laws of harmony, Tip de Auguar diahexlor inaquoriar elia: Now having made the effence of the foul to be harmony, it was no wonder he should chuse a dialect, which he supposed approached nearest to its nature; that the mind and tongue might go together. 3. Pythagoras scems here to have imitated his maiter

master Orpheus, from whom, as we shall see hereaster, he borrowed much of his philosophy; for Jamblichus tells us, that the old writings that went under the name of Orpheus, were composed in Doric. 4. But, lastly, a patfage in Porphyry's Life of Pythago: as feems alone fufficient to determine this matter: l'orphyry giving the causes of the decay of the Pythago-Tic philosophy, affigns this for one, that their commentaries were written in Doric. "Exella dià tò xal ta yespammena Dupidi yespagbar, p. 49. Kust. Ed. This is the clearest comment on the words in question, and determines them to the sense contended for. One would wonder, indeed, that so learned a Critic could take them in any other. But the secret was this, Dr. Bentley having pretended to discover, that Ocellus Lucanus did not write his book in the common dialect, as it is now extant, but in Doric; (Differt. upon Phalaris, &c. p. 47.) his adversaries (Differt. examined, p. 54.) charge him with having stolen this discovery from Vizzanius. This, Dr. Bentley flatly denies; (Differt. defended, p. 384.) But the only proof he gives of his innocence, is, that the Greek passage, quoted above from Jamblichus, on which both he and Vizzanius had founded their discoveries, is differently translated by them. "The thing, as I said it (says the Dr) is thus; the " Pythagoreans enjoined all the Greeks that entered themselves into the so-" ciety, to use every man his mother tongue (சமுர் அவிசம் சர் கவிழம்க.) Ocellus, "therefore, being a Dorian of Lucania, must have writ in the Doric. This 44 I took to be Jamblichus's meaning. But Vizzanius has represented it 46 thus: that they enjoined all that came to them to use the mother-tongue " of Crotona, which was the Doric .- Whether Vizzanius or I have hit er upon the true meaning of Jamblichus, perhaps all competent readers " will not be of a mind." The diffidence of this conclusion would make one suspect the Dr. was now convinced, that Vizzanius's was the right meaning. Yet, I will venture to fay, that the words of Jamblichus, as quoted by Vizzanius without the context, would have been understood by every man, skilled, as Dr. Bentley was, in Greek, in the different sense he has given to them. From whence I conclude, that, when Dr. Bentley wrote his Differtation on Phalaris, he had feen the words of Jamblichus no where but in l'izzanius.

P. 162. [C]. Some have affected not to understand, where it is, in the foregoing passage, that Zaleucus inculcates this doctrine. The place, methinks, was not hard to find: it is, where wicked men are bid to sefore

before themselves the dreadful bour of death. For how should a picture of this scene allure men to virtue, or deter them from vice, but as it opens to them a view of those rewards and punishments they are just going to receive? Hence, too, we learn what those bopes and fears were, which Plutarch, in the passage p. 165, says the ancient lawgivers impressed upon the minds of the people, to keep up the awe and reverence of religion: for Plato assures us it was their general practice, to inculcate the distinction between foul and body; and to teach, that, at their separation, the foul furvived the body; and this, fays he, we should believe upon their word, unless we would be thought to be out of our senses. - mission & av und tois NOMOGETOTEI teud stur Eyem, avres un mandanaris apports puinculais De Legg. lib. xi. But, in his next book, he informs us, more at large, why the ancient Lawgivers inculcated that distinction. It was, in order to build upon it the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments: for he fays, the Lawgivers were to be believed, when they teach the total difference between foul and body, that the former is immortal, and that when it is on the point of departing for the regions of immortality (where it must give an account of its conduct in the body) the good man will meet death with courage and constancy, and the evil man with affright and terrour. And then takes occasion to mention the punishments reserved for the latter: wuibielai d' içi τῷ νομοθέτη χρεών τάτε άλλα, καὶ λέγονι ψυχήν σώμοί! είναι τὸ κάν diapeparan. - ron de dila njum exacon diluc allandon elvan, dunni excepuazioneron, wasa Sies, άλλες απιέραι δώσονία λόγον, καθάπερ ο νόμι δ σατριο λέγει, τῷ μέν αγαθῷ θαρίτεν, το δε κακό μάλα φοδιρον-άτιμος Βηπιολίτικο το κακών εξιαρημαίτων εγίγνείο των μεθα τον ivθαίδε βίον. De Legib. L. XII. T. II. pag. 959. A. B. C. Edit. H. Steph. fol. And here let me observe, that Plato, in the words To ayaθο βαβάαλίου, &c. feems to have had the very passage of Zaleucus in his eye, τίθεσθαι ωρὸ όμιμα των τὸν καιρον τῶτον, &c.--But this cavil had been obviated, Sect. I. of this Second Book, p. 127.

P. 189. [D]. Paul Ernest Jablonshi, a learned German Divine, in his book called Pantheon Egyptiorum, sive de Diis eorum Commentarius, having taken it into his head, for some reason or other, to contend that the Egyptian Gods were not dead men deisted, thought rightly that this account of the Mysteries stood in his way. "Inter omnia argumenta (says he) quibus utuntur viri docti, ad probandum, Egyptios coluisse homines, post mortem divinis honoribus, donatos illud sine dubio primum meretur locum, quod

quod ex Mysteriis Græcorum et ipsorum quoque Ægyptiorum petitum est. Observavit nempe Theologus Anglus præstantissimus, omnique doctrinæ genere cultus, in Mysteriis Græcorum, hanc etiam initiatis doctrinam tradi consuevisse, Deos illos, quos vulgo adorarent omnes, re ipsa mortales extitisse homines, idque testimoniis quibusdam e Cicerone perquam opportune allatis demonstrasse, et extra omnem dubitationis aleam posuisse videtur. He then quotes this passage of the Tuscular questions, and the following from the first book, of the nature of the Gods: and thus proceeds-Cui quidem loco ex priori, lux est accendenda. Jubebantur ergo omnes, initiati Græcorum Mysteriis, credere Deos quos Græcia coleret cunctos, in lucem hanc aliquando editos fuisse, inter homines vixisse et tandem mortem quoque oppetiisse. All this is said with the candour of a true scholar. How unlike to that miscrable chicane lately published at home on this question! Where things are denied no less incontestible than that two and two make four. However the learned Doctor Jablonski must not desert his System. His first evasion therefore of the force arising from my account of the Mysteries is this, -- I had represented them as the invention of Legislators; and had shewn that it was the practice of ancient Lawgivers and Philofophers to teach one doctrine openly and another fecretly. Having got me at this advantage, Who knows then, fays he, Whether these Institutors of the Mysteries believed what they taught? But hear him in his own words-" At quæri non immerito porest, suerintne Legislatores & Conditores Mysteriorum, de eo, quod credere volebant alios, ipsi certo persuasi. Docere nos voluit ingeniosus ille Auctor, qui arcana Mysteriorum Eleusiniorum nobis non fine successi explicare conatus est, Legislatores et Philosophos veteres permulta suis inculcasse, et vehementer commendasse, quæ credebant hominibus fore utilia, etiamfi ea reipia judicarent esse falsa. Quid vetat nos credere ex illorum numero fuisse etiam doctrinam in Myseriis traditam de mortalibus ad honores divinos evectis-Prolegom. Sect. xii.-Nay I know of nothing that binders us from believing, but common sense: Which affures us, that if these Men practised the method of the double dollrine, one set of opinions taught publicly to all, and another secretly to a sew select Auditors, in whom they could particularly confide, the opinions believed by them were certainly the latter. But he has another evasion, in support of his System. Though the Grecian Mysteries taught the human nature of the National Gods, how does it appear that the Vol. I. Ccc Egyptian.

Egyptian Mysleries taught the fame? I spiwer, From the Grecian Mysleries being borrowed from the Egyptian, and from a thousand testimonies besides; particularly from the famous transaction between Alexander the Great and Leo the Egyptian priest. This the learned Writer considers as a fable, a very ready way of getting rid of difficulties which obstruct our Systems.—He endeavours to prove, that in the accounts which Minutius Felix and Athenagoras give of this matter, there were some circumstances inconfistent with the avowed history of Alexander: and from thence he concludes-" Ita ad constituendam illam Fabellam, mendaciis merisque figmentis opus erat." Sect. xv. But if this be sufficient to convict the adventure of imposture, the best attested facts of Antiquity will be in danger; fuch, for instance, as the defeat of Julian's impious purpose to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem; to the true circumstances of which defeat, the Relators of it have added many very fubulous and abfurd. However he acknowleges, that if Alexander did write fuch a Letter to his mother, the Fact will admit no further controversy. But the Letter, he says, was a forgery of some indiscreet Christian Writers, who being notorious Tricksters. and at the same time got into the general Opinion that the national Gods of the Pagans were dead men-what then?-" Estne igitur mirum Tenebrionem nescio quem, in corum gratiam talem Alexandri Epistolam confinxisse, camque postea certatim alios in usum suum convertisse." Sect. xvi. of whatever time or profession, I suppose never forge but to supply some imaginary or real want. Thus these Christian Falsarys (as this learned writer observes) forged some Sibylline Oracles and books of Hermes Trismegiffus. But why did they so? Because they foolishly imagined the FAITH wanted fome support from the Prophecies and doctrines of the Pagans themselves. But with regard to the Opinion that their Gods were dead men deified, the Prophane Writings of best Authority were now full. Nothing therefore can be less founded than this suspicion. His next argument against the authenticity of the Epistles is indeed a pleasant onc. If, says he, the ancient Philosophers had known any thing of this Epifile, their eternal disputations concerning the essence, nature and origine of the Egyptian Gods must have been at an end. "Si Epistola illa, quam Patres laudant, genuina esset, tum quæstio de essentia, natura, & origine Deorum Ægyptiorum quæ veteres Philosophos tantopere exercuit, sic decisa et penitus finita fuisset, ut nemini amplius dubium superesse potucrit." Scct. xvi.

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Did not the ancient Philosophers dispute full as much concerning the Essence, nature and origin of the Grecian Gods? And yet this learned Writer confesses that the Grecian Mysteries taught that they were dead men deified. He must know little of the temper of the ancient Philosophers, who supposes that even an ORACLE, whether without or within the walls of the Mysteries (for oracular Responses were given there as well as at Delphi), could stop them in the career of Disputation. Cicero (we know), who is the Representative of them all, did not suffer his knowlege of what the Eleusinian Mysteries taught, to debar him from advancing a hundred different tenets and conjectures concerning the effence, nature and origin both of the Egyptian and Grecian Gods.

But, continues the learned Doctor, " none of the prophane Writers, Greek or Roman, ever mention this Epistle." " Non certe videmus unquant aliquem ad hoc oraculum confugere, aut ejus vel levissimam mentionem facere; non Varronem-non Ciceronem-non Diodorum Siculum-non Plutarchum"-Sect. xvi. Nothing indeed is more common, yet nothing is more sophistical, than to argue against a fact recorded by one fingle Ancient, or by one set of Ancients, because we cannot find it in any other. As if we had all Antiquity before us, and did not know that a few fragments only, of that rich Cargo remain, of the Wreck of Barbarous Times. Beside, the silence (on this head) in those fragments we have gathered up, may be naturally accounted for. What the Mysteries every where taught was so well known to the Learned, from numerous and authentic testimonies, concerning the Eleusinian and others, that it was nothing strange that neither Varro, Ciccro, nor Diodorus Siculus should take any particular notice of this Epistle. I do not put Plutarch into the number of the filent, because the learned Dr. himself is forced to confess that, in the opinion of some learned men, this Ancient hath alluded to the Epistle in question. The words of Plutarch quoted above run thus, Alexander in his Epifile to his mother fays, that there were certain Oracular Mysteries imparted to bim, which, on his return, be would communicate to her under the same seal of Secrecy. Our learned Dr. thinks otherwise: and that what is said, in the Epifile quoted by Plutarch, means the response of a Common Oracle; while the Epifile mentioned by the Christian Writers refers to what Alexander learnt in the Mysteries. "Verum an dices, obsecto, hanc esse Epistolam illam, quam Patres laudant? Sed in hac agebatur de doctrinis Myfticis The-Ccc 2

ologia Ægyptiorum, ante non auditis, in illa, Sermo tantum est de divinitionibus et pradicionibus sibi divinitus sactis," &c. Sect xvi. This slender reasoning, is spun out of his ignorance, that the words, parlies air opinius, here used by Plutarch, can only signify Oracles delivered in the celebration of the Mysteries. The case was this, The Hierophants of the Mysteries had by this time, to invite custom, erected their Oracles also, like to those at the other public Shrines of the Gods: Of which, an account is given elsewhere.

P. 189. [E.] The words that follow, are, "Quibus explicatis ad ratio-" nemque revocatis, rerum magis natura cognoscitur, quam Deorum." Which M. Pluche, in his Histoire du Ciel, brings to prove, that the purpose of the Mysteries was not to explain the nature of the Gods; and translates thus, " Quand ces mysteres sont expliqués & ramenés à leur vrai " sens, il se trouve que c'est moins la nature des Dieux, qu'on nous y " apprend, que la nature des choses mêmes, ou des vérités dont nous avons " besoin." P. 401. Hist. du Cicl, seconde edit. But had he attended to the dispute carried on in the dialogue, from whence these words of Cicero are quoted, he could hardly have thus grofly mistaken the sense of his author. The reader has now the whole passage before him; in which it is faid, that Euhemerus taught the nature of the Gods; that they were dead men deified: and in which, it is clearly enough intimated, that the Eleufinian and Samothracian Mysteries taught the same doctrine. Yet, according to this translator, Tully immediately adds, that, "when these Mys-" teries are explained and brought back to their true fense, it is found, 36 that not so much the nature of the Gods is taught in them, as the nature " of things, or those truths which our wants require us to be instructed in." That is, the Mysteries did, and they did not teach the nature of the Gods. But it is not for such kind of prate that Cicero has been so long admired. The words, quibus explicatis, ad rationemque revocatis, &c. have a quite different meaning. Velleius, the Epicurean, had undertaken to explain the nature of the Gods. Cotta, the Academic, shews, in his answer, that, under pretence of teaching the nature of the Gods, he, Velleius, took away all Religion; just as those did, who said, the notion of the Gods was invented by Politicians, for the use of Society; just as Prodicus Chius did, who faid, men made Gods of every thing they found beneficial to them; just as Euhemerus did, who said, they were dead men deisied: I fo bear

I forbear (says Cotta) to speak of what is taught in the Mysteries: and then follow the words in question: "Quibus explicatis, ad rationemque revo-" catis, rerum magis natura cognoscitur quam deorum." That is, " If " you will weigh (fays Cotta) and confider all these opinions, so like your own, they will lead you to the knowledge, not of the nature of the "Gods, which you, Velleius, proposed to discourse of, but to the nature of things, which is quite another confideration." Or, in clearer terms, it was, he tells us, Velleius's drift to bring men from Religion to Naturalism. This observation is to the purpose; and shews that Velleius had deviated from his argument. But what M. Pluche makes him fay, is to nobody's purpose but his own. In a word, quibus explicatis, &c. relates to all that Cotta had faid of the Epicureans-of those who made religion the invention of Statesmen-of Prodicus Chius-of Euhemerus, and of the Mysteries. But M. Pluche makes it relate only to the Mysteries. It had hardly been worth while to mention this M. Pluche, had it not been evident, that his purpole in this interpretation of Cicero was to disguise the liberty he took of transcribing the general explanation of the MYSTERIES. as delivered in the first edition of this volume, printed in 1738, into the fecond edition (for when he published the first, he knew nothing of the matter) of his book, called Histoire du Ciel, printed 1741, without the least notice or acknowledgment. But for a further account of this piece of plagiarism, I refer the reader to a discourse, intitled Observations sur l'exflication que M. l' Abbé Pluche donne des mysteres & de la mythologie des payens dans son Histoire du Ciel, written with much judgment and solidity, by M. de Silhouette: who has intirely fubverted M. Pluche's fanciful system, as well as proved, that he took his idea of the Mysteries from the Divine Legation. It is in the fifth differtation of a work, intitled Differtations fur l'union de la religion, de la morale, & de la politique.

P. 193. [F.] Eugebius says, Scripture tells us this, ruto di nal di sipol nal sipol na

PHTA,

PHTA, or Secret, in all the Mysteries throughout the Gentile World; and particularly of those of Mitbras, in that country which was the scene of the prophecy. That this is the true sense of this obscure passage, appears from the following words of the same chapter, where God himself addresseth the Jewish people : I have not fooken in secret, in a dark place of the earth: I faid not unto the feed of Jacob, Seek ye me in vain, ver. 19. This was faid, to shew that he was taught amongst them in a different way from that participation of his Nature to a few felest Gentiles, in their Mysteries; celebrated in secret, and in dark subterraneous places; which not being done in order to give him glory, by promoting his public and general worship, was done in vain. These were the two places (explained by one another) which, I presume, furnished Eusebius with his observation, That for the Hebrew people alone was referved the honour of being initiated into the knowledge of God the Creator of all Things, and of being instructed in the practice of true piety towards him.—This naturally leads us to the explanation of those gracles of Apollo, quoted by Eusebius [Prap. Evang. 1. ix. c. x.) from Porphyry; the sense of which neither those ancient writers, nor our Sir John Marsham, seem rightly to have understood. The first is in these Words,

> Αίπεινη γαρ όδος μακάρων, τρηχεία τε πολλόν, Χαλκοδέτοις τα πρώτα διοιγομένη πυλεώσικ 'Ατραπίλοί δὲ ἴασσιν αθέσφαλρι ἐγειγαυῖαι, "Ας πρώτοι μερόπων ἐπ' ἀπείρουα πρήξιν έφυσαν Οἱ τὸ καλὸν πένοδες ῦδωρ ΝειλώτιδΟν αῖης.

The Way to the Knowledge of the Divine Nature is extremely rugged, and of difficult Ascent. The Entrance is secured by brazen gates, opening to the adventurer; and the winding roads, to be passed through, impossible to be described. These, to the vast benefit of mankind, were first marked out by the EGYPTIANS.

The second is as follows:

Μάνοι Χαλδαΐοι σοφίαν λάχον ηδ΄ α΄ρ Εξραΐοι, Αυτογέκθλου ανακτα σεδαζόμενοι Θείν ανγνώς.

True wisdom was the lot only of the Chaldeans and Hebrews, who worship the Governor of the world, the self-existent Deity, with pure and boly
rites.

Marsham, supposing after Eusebius, that the same thing was spoken of in both the Oracles, says, Certe nulla est controversia quin mest monaggias, de unius regimine seve de unico Deo, reverens suerit & reclissima Ebraorum, non item rella Egyptiorum exissimatio. And again,-Verum Apollo parum sibi conflans [Canon. Chron. p. 255, 256. edit. Fr.], because in the one Oracle, the Egyptians are said to be the first; and in the other, the Chaldeans and Hebrews the only People who knew the true God. But they are very confistent; they treat of DIFFERENT THINGS: The first, of the Knowledge of the true God; and the second, of his public Worship. This appears by the different terms in which the Oracles are delivered: The Hebrews, whom the Oracle calls Chaldeans, were well known to be the only people who publicly worshiped the true God. But the knowledge of him being likewife taught, though to few, all over the Gentile world, and only in the Mysteries, and the Mysteries coming, as we have shewn, originally from Egypt, the Oracle says, that the Egyptians first taught men the knowledge of the divine Natures. But that it was in this way, his words plainly intimate:

#### Arpaniloù di lacou allicopalos intelacias,

which exactly describe the embarrassed and perplexed condition of the *Initiated* before they came to the participation of this knowledge. But when the same Oracle speaks of the *Hebrews*' knowledge of God, he uses a very different language,

# σεξαζόμινοι Θεον αγνώς,

evidently respecting the calm and settled state of public worship. I will only observe, that the frights and terrors to which the initiated were exposed, gave birth to all those metaphorical terms of Difficulty and Danger so constantly employed by the Greek writers, whenever they speak of the Communication of the true God.

P. 194. [G] What hath been said will give light to a strange story told by Thucydides, Plutarch, Cornelius Nepos, Justin, and others, of a debauch and night-ramble of Alcibiades, just before his expedition to Syracuse. In which, they say, he revealed to, and acted over with, his companions, the Mysteries of Ceres: that he assumed the office of Hierophant, and called some of those he initiated Musas, and others, Existing: and that, lastly, they broke all the statues of Hermes. These are mentioned by the Historians as distinct actions, and unconnected with one another. But now we see their

their relation, and how one arose from the other: for Alcibiades having revealed the origin of Polytheism and the doctrine of the Unity to his companions, nothing was more natural than for men, heated with wine, to run forth, in a kind of religious sury, and break the statues of their idols. For, what he acted over, was the celebration of the greater mysteries, as appears from Plutarch's calling them the Mysteries of Ceres, she presiding in the greater, as Proserpine presided in the lesser; and from Alcibiades's calling some Exéria, the name of those who participated of the greater Mysteries.

P. 201. [H] A criticism of that very knowing and sagacious writer. Father Simon of the Oratory, will shew the reader how groundless the suspicions of learned men are concerning the genuineness of this Fragment. Father Simon imagines that Porphyry forged the history of Sanchoniatho, under the name of a translation by Philo Byblius; and conjectures that his purpose in so doing was to support Paganism; by taking from it, its Mythology and Allegories, which the Christian writers perpetually objected to it. " Il se peut faire-pour repondre aux objections qu'on leur faisoit " de toutes parts, sur ce, que leur Theologie etoit une pure Mythologie-" ils remonterent jusques aux tems qui avoient precedé les allegories & les " fictions des facrificateurs." Bib. Crit. vol. I. p. 140. But this learned man totally mistakes the matter. The Christians objected to vulgar Paganism, that the stories told of their Gods, were immoral. To this their Priests and Philosophers replied, that these stories were only mythologic Allegories, which veiled all the great truths of Theology, Ethics, and Phylics. The Christians said, this could not be; for that the stories of the Gods had a substantial foundation in fast, these Gods being only dead men deified. who, in life, had like passions and infirmities with other mortals. For the truth of which they appealed to fuch writers as Sanchoniatho, who had given the History both of their mortal and immortal stations and conditions. How then could fo acute an adversary as Porphyry, deeply engaged in this controversy, so far mistake the state of the question, and grounds of his defence, as to forge a book in support of his cause, which totally overthrew it?

P. 206. [1] Some modern Critics think, with Theophilus, that Euhemerus was rightly charged with Atheism; some think, with Clemens Alexathat he was not. There is a circumstance in the case which seems to me decisive, and would incline one to conclude, concerning him, with the generality

generality of the Ancients: It is this, that the earlier policy of the Mysteries and the later of the Philosophers concurring to think it expedient for the sake of Religion to keep that truth a secret which Euhemerus divulged, He who, by divulging it, overthrew Paganism, and never troubled himself to substitute any other scheme of Public Worship in its room, might fairly be supposed to intend the destruction of Religion in general.

P. 209. [K] The celebrated French Poet, in a late work intituled, I.a Philosophie de l'Histoire, c. 37. Des Misteres de Ceres Eleusine, hath done me the honour of giving his Reader an exact abridgement of all that is here said on the subject of the Mysteries: not as collected from the Divine Legation, but as the result of his own researches in Antiquity; save that when he speaks of the Sixth Book of Virgil, he says: "De tres savants "hommes ont prouvé que le fixième livre de l'Enéide n'est que la peinture de ce qui se pratiquait dans ces spectacles [des Misteres de Ceres Eleus.] "si secrets & si renommés:" and when he speaks of the unity of the Godhead revealed in these Mysteries he says, "Le savant Eveque Warburton, quoique tres injuste dans plusieurs de ses decisions audacieuses, donne beaucoup de force à tout ce que je viens de dire de la necessité de cacher le dogme de l'unité, &c."

My audacious decisions, I suppose, are nothing else than my unmasking the ignorance and ill faith of those moderns, which he and his Colleague D'Alembert constantly call THE PHILOSOPHERS, meaning thereby all kind of Unbelievers whatsoever.

P. 210. [L] The common reading, in which all the MSS. agree, is, Quid mibi difficeat, innocentes poeta indicant comici. Victorius conjectured, that, instead of innocentes, Tully wrote in nocturnis, which is certainly right. By the poeta comici, I suppose, Cicero meant the writers of the new comedy. The abuses he hints at, as perpetrated in the Mysteries, were of a libidinous kind: which occasioned an intrigue proper for the new comedy. And we may see by Fabricius's Notitia comicorum deperditorum, Bibl. Grac. lib. II. cap. 22. how frequently the writers of the new comedy laid the scene of their plots in a religious sestival or Mystery. Plautus, who copied from them, opens the subject of his Aulularia in these words.

----Senex

Is adolescentis illius est avunculus, Qui eam stupravit noctu Cereris vigiliis.

P. 217. [N] After I had thus distinguished, as here, and elsewhere (in my discourse on the Sixth Æneis and on the Golden Ass of Apuleius) the PURE from the CORRUPT Mysteries, the reader will be surprized at the following passage of the very learned and candid Chancellor Mosbeim-"Pererudite non ita pridem, quanquam non tam semper seliciter quam ingeniose, de Mysteriis disputavit Wilhelmus Warburtonus libro celeberrimo, 'The Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated.' Censet vir cruditissimus, ad humanarum mentium immortalitatem docendam omnia instituta fuisse Mysteria. Dederim, in nonnullis religionis illius, quam recta ratio tradit, præcepta inculcata, & publicarum religionum vanitatem patefactam fuiffe: omnium vero banc rationem fuiffe, nunquam sibi persuadebit, qui vel BACCHI MYSTERIA cogitaverit, que teste Livio Romani ferre nolebant. De rebus Christianorum ante Constantinum M. Commentarii. Cap. i. Sect. 13. not. (\*\*\*). But as to the pure and uncorrupt Mysteries of Bacchus, authorized by the magistrate, the learned Writer might have seen, p. 169, note (‡), that Celfus expresly affirms, even these taught a future state; which truth his adversary Origen confesses.

P. 218. [O] This short historical deduction of the rise and fall of the Mysteries will afford much light to the following passage of St. Paul, speaking of the leaders and instructors of the Gentile world,—"So that they are without excuse: because that when they knew God, they gloristed him not as God, neither were thankful; but became vain in their imaginations, and their foolish heart was darkened. Professing themselves to be wise,

"they became fools: and changed the glory of the uncorruptible God into an " image made like a corruptible man, and to birds and four-footed beafts, and " creeping things. Wherefore God gave them up to uncleanness, through es the lusts of their own hearts, to dishonour their own bodies between "themselves. Who changed the truth of God into a lie, and worshiped " and ferved the creature more than the Creator, who is bleffed for ever, " amen. For this cause God gave them up unto vile affettions," &c. Rom. i. 20, & seq. In these words, the holy apostle evidently condemns the foolish policy of the Gentile sages, who, when they knew God (that is, discovered God, as Paul intimates, by the light of nature) yet glorified bim not as God, by preaching him up to the people; but, carried away, in the vanity of their imagination, by a mistaken principle of politics, that a vulgar knowledge of him would be injurious to fociety, thut up his glory in their MYSTERIES, and gave the people, in exchange for an uncorruptible God, an image made like to corruptible man and birds, &c. God, in punishment for their thus turning bis truth into a lie, suffered even their Mysteries, which they erected (though on these wrong principles) for a school of virtue, to degenerate into an odious sink of vice and immorality; giving them up unto all uncleanness and vile affections. That this was the apostle's meaning, appears not only from the general tenor of the passage, but from feveral particular expressions; as where he speaks of changing the glory of God to birds, beafts, and creeping things: for this was the peculiar superstition of Egypt: and Egypt we have shewn to be the first inventress of the Mysteries. Again, he says, they worshiped and served the creature more than the Creator, was it is in illianda. This was strictly true with regard to the MYSTERIES: the CREATOR was there acknowledged by a small and select number of the Participants; but the general and solemn worship even in these celebrations was to their national idols. In the OPEN worship of paganism, either public or particular, it was not at all true, for there the CREATURE was the sole object of adoration.

P. 219. [P] What hath been said above, shews that M. Le Clerc hath gone into the other extreme of party prejudice, when he contends (Bibl. Univ. tom. vi. p. 73.) that the Mysteries were not corrupted at all. I can conceive no reason for so violent a paradox, but as it savoured an accusation against the Fathers, who have much insisted on the corruption of them—'c Les peres ont dit qu'on commettoit toute sorte d'ordures dans ces céremonies: mais quoi qu'ils disent, il n'est pas croiable que toute la

"Grece, quelque corrompuë qu'elle ait été, ait jamais consenti que les filles & les semmes se prostituassent dans les mysteres—Mais quelques auteurs chrétiens n'ont sait aucune difficulté de dire mille choses peu consormes à la verité, pour dissamer le paganisme : de peur qu'il n'y eût que les payens à qui ou pût reprocher leur calomnies." Bibl. Univ. tom. vi. p. 120.

P. 221. [Q] The reader will not be displeased to find here an exact account of this whole matter, extracted from a very curious differtation of Is. Casaubon, a great and unexceptionable writer, in his Sixteenth Exercitation on the Annals of Baronius.- "Pii patres quum intelligerent, quo fa-" cilius ad veritatis amorem corruptas superstitione mentes traducerent; & « verba facrorum illorum quamplurima, in suos usus transtulerunt; & " cum doctrinæ veræ capita aliquot sic tractarunt, tum ritus etiam nonnullos " ejusmodi instituerunt; ut videantur cum Paulo dicere gentibus voluisse, " ຂໍ ຂ່າງໝັກໂຄຊ ຄວາເຮີດເຈາ, ເພນາຂ καໃαໃγάλλομε ນໍ່ມຸນັ້ນ. Hinc igitur est, quod sacra-" menta patres apellarunt my/leria, μυήσεις, τελειώσεις, ίποπθείας, five es inviteias, relegios; interdum etiam spia, sed rarius: peculiariter vero " eucharistiam τελείων τελείων. Dicitur etiam antonomacite τὸ μυτέριος, aut er numero multitudinis ra μυζήρια. Apud patres passim de sacra commu-\* nione leges φρικτά μυγήρια vel τὸ εὐποβρίθου μυγήριου; Gregorio Magno, mages num & pavendum ysterium. Musisbas in veterum monumentis sæpe leges " pro cœnæ dominicæ fieri particeps; μύησιν pro ipsa actione; μύσης est " sacerdos, qui etiam dicitur à pusaluyan & à legalenesis. In liturgiis Græcis ช & alibi etiam ที่ เคลิ าะภิสิทิ, & ที่ xpupia หลิง เพ่าอุงอิษ าะภิจาที, est eucharistia. " Quemadmodum autem gradus quidem in mysteriis paganicis servati sunt, " fic Dionyfius universam ายัง ระกะร้อง ากุ๋ง โะครกูงเลง, traditionem sacramento-" rum distinguit in tres actiones, quæ & ritibus & temporibus erant divi-" iæ: prima est κάθαρσις, purgatio; altera μώποις, initiatio; tertia, τελιίωση, . " consummatio; quam & iroliar sape nominat. Spem meliorem morien-46 tibus attulisse mysteria Attica dicebat paulo ante M. Tullius. " contra, certam salutem & vitam æternam Christi mysteria digne percipi-" entibus afferre, confirmabant: qui illa contemnerent, servari non posse: 44 finem vero & fructum ultimum facramentorum 9inen, deificationem, di-" cere non dubitarunt, quum scirent vanarum superstitionum auctores, " suis epoptis eum honorem audere spondere. Passim igitur legas apud 4 Patres, της iseas μυςαιογίας τέλο είναι θέωτιν, finem facramentorum esse, ut " qui vera ficle illa perciperent, in futura vita dii evadant. Athanasius " verbo

es verbo Stewatiolas in eam rem est usus; quod mox ab codem explicatur, es participatione so ritus conjungimur deitati. De symbolis sacramentorum, " per quæ divinæ illæ ceremoniæ celebrar.tur, nihil attinet hoc loco dicere; " illud vero, quod est & appellatur fidei symbolum, diversi est generis, & " fidelibus tefferæ usum præstat, per quam se mutuo agnoscunt, qui piees tati sacramento dixerunt; cujusmodi tesseras suisse etiam in paganorum " mysteriis ostendimus. Formulæ illi in mysteriis peragendis usurpatæ, 66 Procul este profani, respondet in liturgia hæc per diaconos pronuntiari " folita; οσοι καθαχώμενοι προέλθελε; Vel, έξω περιπατείτε οσοι ένεργώμενοι, οσοι αμύπλοι; " omnes catechumeni, foras discedite, omnes possessi, omnes non initiati. Noctu " ritus multi in mvsteriis peregebantur; noctu etiam initiatio Christianorum " inchoabatur: Gaudentio nominatur splendidissima non vigiliarum. Quod " autem dicebamus de filentio in facris opertaneis servari a paginis solito, " id institutum veteres christiani sic probarunt, ut religiosa ejus observast tione mystas omnes longe superarint. Quemadmodum igitur dicit 66 Seneca, sanctiora sacrorum solis initiatis suisse nota, & Jamblichus de ீ Philosophia Pythagoreorum in ரவ் வால்ற்றிய, quæ efferri non poterant, & " τα ίκρορα, quæ foras efferre jus erat; ita universam doctrinam christianam er veteres distinguebant in tal exempa, id est, ea quæ enuntiari apud omnes " poterant, & τὰ ἀπόβρηα arcana temere non vulganda; τὰ δόγμαζα, inquit " Basilius, อเพชสามา งส์ อีเ หทุงปัญสาต อีทุนพอเเบ่เโนเ, dogmata filentio premuntur; " praconia publicantur. Chrysostomus, de iis qui baptizantur pro mortuis: "Cupio quidem perspicue rem dicere; sed propter non initiatos non audeo: bi " interpretationem reddunt nobis difficiliorem; dum nos cogunt, aut perspicue " non dicere, aut arcana, que taceri debent, apud ipsos efferre. Atque ut " igoggiiolas va portesa dixerunt pagani, de iis qui arcana mysteriorum " evulgabant; ita dixit Dionysius, Vide ne enunties, aut parum reverenter " babeus fansta fanctorum. Paffim apud Augustinum leges, Sacramentum " quod norunt fideles. In Johannem tract, xi. autem fic; Omnes catechumeni " jam credunt in nomine Christi, SED JESUS NON SE CREDIT EIS. MOX In-44 terrogemus catechumenum, Manducas carnem filii bominis? nesist quid dici-" mus. Iterum, Nesciunt catechumeni quid accipiant christiani: erubescant " ergo quia nesciunt." But the worst part of the story is still behind, which the concluding words of the quotation will not fuffer me to pass over in filence. These Fathers used so strange a language, in speaking of the last Supper, that it gave occasion to a corrupt and barbarous Church, in after-times, to ingraft upon it a doctrine more stupendously absurd and blafblasphemous than ever issued from the mouth of a Pagan Priest. What is further to be lamented in the affair is this, that the Fathers, who so complaisantly suffered themselves to be missed by these Mysteries, in their representation of the Christian Faith, would not suffer the Mysteries to set them right in the meaning of a term frequently found in the New Testament, and borrowed from those Rites, namely the very word itself, Mystery: which, amongst the men from whom it was taken, did not signify the revealing of a thing incomprehensible to human reason; but the revealing of a thing kept hid, and secreted, which yet, in its nature, was very plain and intelligible.

P. 222. [R] Mr. Le Clerc owns, that Plutarch, Diodorus, and Theodoret, have all faid this; yet the better to support his scheme in the interpretation of the history of Ceres, he has thought fit to contradict them; but his reason is very singular:—" C'étoit la coûtume des payens de dire 44 que des divinitez étoient les mêmes, lors qu'ils avoient remarqué quelque " legere ressemblance entre elles, dans la fausse pensée où ils etoient que les " plus grands de leurs dieux s'étoient sait connoître dans toute la terre : au " lieu qu'il n'y en avoit aucun qui ne fut TOPIQUE, c'est à dire particulier "à un lieu-On en trouvera divers exemples dans le petit traité De la et deesse de Syrie." Bibl. univ. tom. vi. p. 121. It is very true, that the Gods of the Pagans were local deities; but to think the Ancients could be ignorant of this, when it is from the nature and genius of Paganism, as delivered by them, that we come to know it, is a very extraordinary conceit. Indeed the Moderns, possessed with their own ideas, were and are generally unattentive to this truth; and so have committed many errors in their reasonings on the subject. But that principle of the intercommunity of worldip in ancient paganism (explained in another place) would have the same effect in spreading the worship, as if their Gods were universal and not local; which shews the Ancients not missaken in the point in question. Yet Mr. Le Clerc, in another place, could see that Astartè was certainly Isis, as Adonis was Osiris; and this, merely from the fimilitude, or rather, identity of their ceremonies.

Ibid. [S] There is a remarkable passage in Syncellus relating to this subject, which hath been little understood. This Writer speaking, from Africanus, of the very early Egyptian King, Suphis, says, Iros & xal The IEPIONTHE is 9 six inferred xal The ispan outsignable sicon, This King was a Contemplator of the Gods, and wrote a sacred Book. The Reader may see, by what

Sir J. Marsham hath said on this passage [Can. Chron. p. 53.] how much it wants explaining. What increases the difficulty is the contrary account which Eusebius, in Syncellus, gives of this matter. He says that this King was a Contemner of the Gods, and that on his repentance be wrote a facred book; 8; nai TΠΕΡΟΠΤΗΣ is Seis γίγονεν, is pelavoisavla autor the ispar συγεράψαι Bilion. These obscure and inconsistent tracts of History can be only explained and reconciled by what is here delivered concerning the Mysteries (originally Egyptian) which had for their grand fecrets or ANOPPHTA the detection of Polytheism, and the doctrine of the first Cause. I regard therefore this passage of Africanus, as a remarkable piece of history, which conveys to us the memory of the first institutor of the AHOPPHTA of the Mysteries. The term wipioning peculiar to these Rites, and the ipà sichos, the name of that book which was read to the Initiated, very much support this interpretation. To which let me add this further circumstance:-Suphis, according to Marsham, died about forty years after Abraham. The Patriarch without question instructed the idolatrous Egyptians in the knowledge of the true God. Suphis therefore might take advantage of that knowledge (which he found amongst the priests, with whom Abraham, as Damascenus in Eusebius informs us, had many disputes and conferences about Religion) and apply it to this purpose: And then Eusebius's account that Suphis was a contemner of the Gods will be so far from giving us any trouble to reconcile it to Africanus's, who calls this same Suphis a Contemplator of them, that they jointly tend to elucidate the general subject. For if Suphis instituted antipina in his Mysteries, which exposed and disgraced Polytheisin, he certainly would be esteemed, by all those who had heard it, as an ATHEIST or Contemner of the Gods; the character given to all who opposed Polytheism both in the earlier and later times of Paganism. Now Eusebius finding this charged upon Suphis, by the same authority which says he wrote a facred Book, not apprehending to what the thing referred, and not conceiving how a prophane man should be disposed to write a sacred Book or a Ritual of Worship, he tried to reconcile matters, by supposing that the Monarch repented of his impiety before he wrote his book. Lastly, to confirm all that hath been here said, we may observe, that the mode of speech here used concerning Suphis, is the very same which the Egyptian Chroniclers employ when they speak more plainly of the INITIATIONS of their succeeding Kings. Josephus from Manetho, speaking of Amenophis, hath a remarkable passage to

this purpole. Φησί τέτον ἐπιθυμήσαι Θεών γενίσθαι ΘΕΑΤΗΝ, ώσπερ "Ωρος είς τών το αυτίν βεδασιλιυκότων ανικείκει» δε την επιθυμίαν ομωνύμω μεν αυτώ 'Αμινώφει, ααθρός εί Παπιος ονίι, θείως δε δοκών!ι μείεσχηκέναι φύσεως, κατά τε σοφίαν και πρόγουστο των έσομένων είτειν εν αυθώ τέτον τιν εμώνυμον, ότι δυνήσεθαι Θεες ΙΔΕΙΝ, ει καθαράν από те депров над тог яддин инкрив аввриями тут хиран аписан шоговен. [Cont. Apion. l. i. c. 26.] "He fays, that Amenophis defired to be made a Contemplator of the Gods, as was Orus one of his Predecessors in the Kingdom: and 44 that he communicated this defire to his namesake Amenophis, the son ee of Papis, who, by his wisdom and prescience of suturity, was under-" flood to have participated of the Divine Nature. His namesake hereupon " told him that he might have the Privilege of feeing the Gods, if he would 45 purge the whole country from leprous and unclean persons." We see plainly that what was here defired by Amenophis, of his namesake, was an initiation. This fon of Papis appears to have been the HIEROPHANT of the Mysteries, and under that character celebrated for his skill in divining. The request is enforced by the favour granted to his Predecessor, Orus, as Æneas's request to the Sibyl, that he might visit the infernal Regions, by the example of Orpheus, Hercules, &c.

"Si potuit Manis arcessere conjugis Orpheus, &c."

The proposed adventures are related in the high terms of seeing the Gods and visiting the insernal Regions, agreeably to what has been, and will presently be further explained concerning this sublime phraseology, arising partly from the high veneration paid to initiation into the Mysteries, and partly from the amazement occasioned by the Shews and the Machinery exhibited in the celebration of them. The Aspirant is required by his namesake the Hierophant, to purify the land from the unclean, in conformity to those previous ceremonies of sustration which we have shown were to be performed before admission to the Mysteries. And now we see of how little avail, to the service of insidelity, that Parallel is, which Sir J. Marsham has drawn between all these passages from Africanus and Manatho, and Moses's Visions of God at the Bush and in the Mount.

P. 231. [T] Ulysses, in Homer, mentions both these sorts in the following lines,

Ζου σώτερ, εί μ'-----Φήμην τίς μοι φάσθω έγειρομένων άνθρώπων "Ενδοθεν, έκδοσθεν δε Διός τέρας άλλο φανήτω. The word omen in its proper sense signifies futura rei signum, quod ex sermone loquentis capitur. Tully says, lib. i. Divin. "Pythagorei non solum voces "deorum observarunt, sed etiam hominum, quae vocant omina." This sort of omen was supposed to depend much upon the will of the person concerned in the event. Hence the phrases accepit omen, arripuit omen. This, as we say, was its first and proper signification. It was asterwards applied to things, as well as words. So Paterculus, speaking of the head of Sulpicius on the rostrum, says it was velut omen imminentis proscriptionis. And Suetonius of Augustus: "Auspicia quaedam & omina pro certissimis "observabat. Si mane sibi calceus perperam, ac sinister pro dextero in- duceretur, ut dirum." It was used still in a larger sense to signify an augury, as by Tully, De Div. lib. i.

Sic aquilæ clarum firmavit Jupiter omen.

And lastly, in the most general sense of all, for a portent or prodigy in general, as in the place before us.

P. 239. [U] The Etrusci seem to have had the same custom, in which the public reposed its last confidence. Livy tells us, that in the 444th year of Rome, when the affairs of this people were grown desperate by the repeated defeats of their armies, they had recourse to the lex sacra, as their last refuge. Of which the historian gives this succinct and obscure account,-" ad Vadimoniis lacum Etrusci lege sacrata coacto exercitu, " quum vir virum legisset, quantis nunquam alias ante fimul copiis, fimul " animis dimicarunt," &c. lib. ix. The commentators are at a loss for the meaning of this facred law, in raising an army where every soldier was to chuse his fellow. I certainly think it to be the Institution in question: the Etrusci were descended from the Pelasgi, and had afterwards civilized and polished themselves by Grecian customs, as one may well suppose from the character Livy gives of them in this book-" Cære educatus er apud hospites, Etruscis inde literis eruditus erat :- habet autores, vulgo "tum Romanos pueros, ficut nunc Græcis, ita Etruscis literis erudiri soli-" tos." But, in general, the giving a traditive original even to the most characteristic customs, is very fallacious. Mahomet, who certainly did not Borrow from the ancient Grecian practices, yet established the fame kind of Fraternity amongst his followers, in the first year of the Hegira. See Abul-feda De vita Mabonmedis, cap. 26. init. De Fraternitate instituta inter Moslemos. And, what is still more extraordinary, the Mission-Vol. I. aries Eee

aries affure us, that it is one of the most facred Institutions amongst the warrior-nations of the free people in North America. Which, because it so exactly resembles the Grecian in all its circumstances, I shall give, as,I find it described by one of their best writers. "Chacun parmi eux a un es ami à peu pres de son age, auquel il s'attache, et qui s'attache à lui par et des liens indisfolubles. Deux hommes ainsi unis pour leur intérêt com-" mun, doivent tout faire & tout risquer pour s'entr'aider, & se secourir " mutuellement : la mort même, à ce qu'ils croyent, ne les separe que pour un ce tems: ils comptent bien de se rejoindre dans l'autre monde pour ne se plus " quitter, persuadés qu'ils y auront encore besoin l'un de l'autre.-On " ajoute, que ces amis, quand ils se trouvent eloignés les uns des autres, « s'invoquent reciproquement dans les périls, ou ils se recontrent; ce " qu'il faut sans doute entendre de leurs genies tutilaires. Les PRESENS 4º sont les noeuds de ces associations, l'intérêt & le besoin les fortifient; c'est " un secours sur lequel on peut presque toujours compter. Quelques uns " pretendent qu'ils s'y glisse du desordre; mais j'ai sujet de croire qu'au moiens " cela n'est pas general." Journal d'un Voyage dans l'Amerique Septentrionale par le P. de Charlevoix, tome vi. p. 14.

P. 241. [X] One can hardly account for that strange mistake of the Abbé Velly in his elegant History of France, where speaking of these fraternities in arms amongst the Northern Nations (for nature dictates the same practice to all, in the same circumstances), he says—"On n'en trouve "AUCUN VESTIGE chez ces sieres Republiques qui s'etoient attribué l'esprit et la politesse à l'exclusion de tout autre Peuple: mais elles sont de toute ancienneté chez les Nations Septentrionales, que la Grece et l'Italie plutôt civilisées ont juge àpropos de nommer Sauvages et Barbares. Tom. v. p. 58.

P. 244. [Y] Hence the reader will be able to judge of the delicacy o taste, and accuracy of discernment, in a late Writer; who, in a book called *Elements of Criticism*, corrects Virgil's want of judgement in this part of the *Æneis*, after having given instances of desects full as notorious, in the *Georgics*. "An episode in a narrative Poem (says this Man of Taste) being, in effect, an Accessory, demands not that strict union with the principal subject, which is requisite betwixt a whole and its constituent parts. The relation, however, of *Principal* and *Accessory* being pretty instituent, an Episode LOOSELY connected with the principal subject will "never

"never be graceful. I GIVE FOR AN EXAMPLE the descent of Eneas into Hell, which employs the Sixth Book of the Æncid. The Reader is nor "PREPARED for this important event. No cause is assigned that can "make it appear necessary, or even natural, to suspend, for so long a "time, the principal action," &c. &c. vol. I. p. 38.—The Critic having told us that a firiti union is not required between the Principal and Accessory, sinds fault with the Accessory, that no cause is given to make it appear, that it is necessary to the principal. However, I ought not to be too severe on this great Critic, since the Observation was certainly made on purpose to recommend my interpretation of this descent into Hell; which shews, if not the necessary, yet the infinite grace and beauty of this noble Accessory, and the close and natural connexion it has with its Principal.

P. 251. [Z] But Servius, in his explanation of the branch, went upon the absurd supposition that Æneas's descent into hell was the same with that of Ulysses, in Homer, a necromantic incantation by sacrifice, to call up the shadows of the dead. "Ramus enim necesse erat, ut & unius causa sessential estation in the same service erat, ut & unius causa sessential estation mortem subjungit Miseni: & ad sacra sessential estation mortem subjungit Miseni: & ad sacra sessential estation non poterat. Inseros autem subsett ire, hoc dicit sacra celebrare Proserpinæ." And again, ad ver. 149. "Praterea jacet exanimum tibi corpus amici. Ac si diceret; Est & alia opportunitas descendendi ad inseros, id est, Proserpinæ sacra peragendi. Duo enim horum sacrorum genera suisse dicuntur; unum nekyomansette, quod Lucanus exsequitur; & aliud sciomantiæ, id est, divinationis per umbras; suia enim umbra est, & marshia, vaticinium, quod in ses Homero, quem Virgilius jequitur, sectum est."

P. 252. [AA] The learned Selden, in his comment on the ninth book of Poly-olbion, feems to approve the abfurd conjecture of P. Crinitus, that the golden-bough fignifies mifletoe: and would confirm it by that very reason, which absolutely overthrows it; viz. that Virgil compares it to the mifletoe: for it is contrary to all the rules of good writing, whether simply figurative, or allegoric, to make the comparison to the cover, the contents of the cover; a comparison necessarily implying, that the thing, to which another is compared, should be different from that other.

P. 268. [BB] The very learned Mr. Dacier translates in anophirus, dans les Mysteres; and this agreeably to his knowledge of antiquity. For anophirus was used by the ancients, to signify not only the grand secret taught in the Eee 2 Mysteries,

Mysteries, but the Mysteries themselves; as appears from innumerable places in their writings. Yet the celebrated French translator of Puffendorf's Law of Nature and Nations, lib. ii. cap. 4. § 19. note (1), accuses him of not understanding his author: "Mr. Dacier fait dire à Platon que se l'on tenoit tous les jours ces discours au peuple dans les ceremonies & dans « les Mysteres. Il seroit à souhaiter qu'il eût allégué quelque autorité pour et etablir un fait si remarquable. Mais il s'agit ici manisestement des in-46 structions secrétes que les Pythagoriciens dominient à leurs initiez, & " lesquelles ils decouvroient les raisons les plus abstruses, & les plus par-" ticuliers des dogmes de leur philosophie. Ces instructions cachées s'ap-" pelloient ariiila --- Ce que Platon dit un peu auparavant de Philolaus. of philosophe Pythagoricien, ne permit pas de douter que la raison, qu'il " rapporte ici comme trop abstruse & difficile à comprendre, ne soit celle " que donnoient les Pythagoriciens." He says, it were to be wished Dacier bad some authority for so remarkable a fact. He hath this very passage, which is sufficient; for the word antipina can mean no other than the Mysteries. But those who want further authority, may have enough of it, in the nature and end of the Mysteries, as explained above.—He says, "It " is evident, Plato is here talking of the secret instructions which the "Pythagoreans gave to their Initiated, in which they discovered their " most abstruse and particular doctrines." This cannot be so, for a very plain reason. The philosophy of the Pythagoreans, like that of the other fects, was divided into the exoteric and efoteric; the open, taught to all; and the fecret, taught to a felect number. But the impiety of fuicide was in the first class, as a doctrine serviceable to society: "Vetatque Pythagoras in-" justu imperatoris, id est, Dei, de præsidio & statione vitæ decedere," fays Tully, in his book Of old age; who, in his Dream of Scipio, written in the exoteric way, condemns fuicide for the very same reason; but in an epistle to a particular friend, which certainly was of the esoteric kind, he approves of it; " Ceteri quidem, Pompeius, Lentulus tuus, Scipio, Afra-"nius, fœde perierunt. At Cato PRÆCLARE. Jam istuc quidem, cum "volemus, licebit." lib. ix. ep. 18. It could not be, therefore, that the impiety of fuicide should be reckoned amongst the aroppila of philosophy, fince it was one of their popular doctrines. But this will be fuller seen, when we come to speak of the philosophers, in the next book. Mr. Barbeyrac concludes, that, " as Plato had spoken of Philolaus a little before, " it cannot be doubted but that he speaks of the reason against fuicide,

" as a doctrine of the Pythagorean philosophy." What has been said above, utterly excludes this interpretation. But though it did not, there is nothing in the context which shews, Plato thought of Philolaus in this place. It is allowed, this was a doctrine of the Pythagoric school, though not of the esoteric kind. The Mysteries, and that School, held a number of things in common; this has been shown, in part, already: and when we come to speak of Pythagoras, it will be seen how it happened.

P. 269. [CC] We may well judge it to be so, when we find it amongst the Chinese (see M. Polo. lib. ii. cap. 28.) and the Arabians, the two people least corrupted by foreign manners, and the vicious customs of more civilized nations. The Arabians, particularly, living much in a state of nature, where mens wants are sew, and consequently where there is small temptation to this unnatural crime, yet were become so prone to it, that their lawgiver Mahomet sound it necessary to exact an oath of the Arabian women, not to destroy their children. The form of this oath is given us by Gagnier, in his notes on Abel-seda's Lise of Mahomet, and it is in these words; "—Ne deo rem ullam associent; ne surentur; ne fornicentur; ne LIBEROS SUOS OCCIDANT [metu paupertatis uti habetur, Sur vi. v. 151.] neque inobedientes sint Apostolo Dei, in eo quod justum est."

p. 41. n. (a).

P. 270. [DD? The Egyptian laws were faid to have been of Isis's own appointment. This will shew us with what judgment and address Ovid has told the tale of Lidgus the Cretan, in his *Metamorphosis*; (of the nature and art of which Work more will be observed hereafter.) Lidgus (in the ixth book, fab. 12.) is represented as commanding his pregnant wise, Telethusa, to destroy the expected infant, if it proved a female. Yet is this Cretan thus characterized,

## vita fidesque

#### Inculpata fuit----

in a word, just such another as Terence's man of universal benevolence, (mentioned above) the Author of the samous maxim, bomo sum, bumani nibil a me alienum puto, and of the very same command of infanticide to his Wise; who for not obeying it is reckoned by him, amongst those, qui neque jus neque bonum atque aquum sciunt. Telethusa, however, as common as such a command was, and as indifferent as it was esteemed, is much alarmed with the apprehension of falling into the cruel situation of being

obliged to execute it. In this diffres Isis appears to her in a dream, promises her assistance, and orders her to deceive her husband, and bring up whatever the Gods should send:

Pone graves curas, mandataque falle mariti; Nec dubita, cum te partu Lucina levârit, Tollere quicquid erit——

Ovid's moral of his tale is this, "That Egypt had opposed very wise and "humane laws to the horrid practice of INFANTICIDE, now become ge"neral, and continuing unchecked by all other civil institutions."

P. 309. (EE). On what is here said concerning the Character of Æmilianus the most learned Chancellor Mosheim observes as follows: "Platonicis Christianam Religionem astu sulvertere studentibus, Apuleium non ita pridem addidit vir ingenio æque magnus atque doctrina, Guil. Warburtonus in Demonstratione divina Legationis Moss. Hunc enim in notissima illa de aureo Asino sabula seu Metamorphosi id egisse putat, ut Mysteria Deorum summa virtute ad sanandas & purgandas hominum mentes esse prædita, sacrisque Christianis idcirco longe anteferenda, demonstraret, hominem nempe imprimis superstitiosum, Christianisque et publico Secta, quam probabat, & privato nomine inimicum. Observavit Vir egregius qua est sagacitate, rcrumque veterum peritia, in Apuleio nonnulla nemini ante ipsum observata: in quibus id placet maxime, quod LICINIUM ÆMILIANUM, qui Apu-LEIUM apud Africæ Proconsul Magia accusaverat Christianum fuisse ex Apologia, quæ extat, accusati, non sine magna veri specie suspicatur. De consilio vero Fabula de Asino, quod commentationem Mysteriorum et Christianæ Religionis contemtionem vir doctissimus esse conjicit, dubitare mihi liceat, quum nihil afferri videam ex ea, quod difficulter in aliam partem accipi possit." De rebus Christ. ante Constant. M. Commentarii Seculum tert. Sect. 21. not. (\*\*\*) The English of which conclusion amounts to this, "That another interpretation might be given of the Golden Ass." I believe so. It might be shewn to contain a process for the discovery of the Philosopher's Stone. And a certain German Chymist, if I be not mistaken, has extracted this secret out of the Fable.

## CONTINUATION OF BOOK II.

#### SECT. V.

ITHERTO we have shewn the Magistrate's care in PROPA-GATING the belief of a God—of his Providence over human affairs—and of the way in which that Providence is chiefly dispensed; namely, by rewards and punishments in a future state. These things make the essence of Religion, and compose the body of it.

His next care was for the SUPPORT of Religion, so propagated. And this was done by UNITING it to the State, taking it under the civil protection, and giving it the rights and privileges of an ESTABLISHMENT. Accordingly we find that all states and people, in the ancient world, had an ESTABLISHED RELIGION; which was under the more *immediate* protection of the civil Magistrate, in contradistinction to those which were only TOLERATED.

How close these two Interests were united in the Egyptian Policy, is well known to all acquainted with Antiquity. Nor were the politest Republics less solicitous for the common interests of the two Societies, than that sage and powerful Monarchy (the nurse of arts and virtue) as we shall see hereafter, in the conduct both of Rome and Athens, for the support and preservation of the established worship.

But

But an established Religion is the voice of Nature; and not confined to certain ages, people, or religions. That great voyager and sensible observer of men and manners, J. Baptiste Tavernier, speaking of the kingdom of Tunquin, thus delivers himself concerning this universal policy, as he saw it practised, in his time, both in the East and West: "I come now to the political description of this kingdom, under which I comprehend the religion, which is, almost every where, in concert with the civil government, for the mutual support of one another \*."

That the Magistrate established Religion, united it to the State, and took it into his immediate protection for the sake of civil Society, cannot be questioned; the advantages to Government being so apparent.

But the necessity of this union for procuring those advantages, as likewise the number and extent of them, are not so easily understood. Nor indeed can they be understood without a perfect knowledge of the nature of an ESTABLISHED RELIGION, and of those principles of equity, on which it ariseth. But as this masterpiece of human policy hath been of late, though but of late, called in question, after having from the first institution of Society, even to the present age, been universally practised by the Magistrate, and as universally approved by philosophers and divines; and as our question is the conduct of Lawgivers, and legitimate Magistrates, whose institutions are to be defended on the rules of reason and equity; not of Tyrants, who set themselves above both; it will not be improper to examine this matter to the bottom; especially as the enquiry is so necessary to a perfect knowledge of the civil advantages, resulting from an established religion.

We must at present then lay aside our ideas of the ancient modes of civil and religious societies; and search what they are in themselves, by nature; and thence deduce the institution in question.

I shall

<sup>\*</sup> Je viens à la description politique de ce royaume, dans laquelle je comprens la religien, qui est gresque en tons lieux de concert avec le gouvernement civil pour l'appny reciproque de l'un et de l'autre. Relation nouvelle du Royaume de Tunquin, c. x. à la fin.

I shall do this in as few words as possible; and refer those, who desire a fuller account of this matter, to a separate discourse, intituled, The Alliance between church and state.

In the beginning of the first book, where we speak of the origin of civil Society, the reader may remember we have shewn the natural deficiency of its plan; and how the influence and sanction of *Religion* only can supply that defect.

Religion then being proved necessary to Society; that it should be so used and applied, and in the best way, and to most advantage, needs no proof. For it is as instinctive in our nature to improve, as to investigate and pursue Good: and with regard to the improvement of this in question, there is special reason why it should be studied. For the experience of every place and age informs us, that the coactivity of civil Laws and Religion, is little enough to keep men from running into disorder and mutual violence.

But this improvement is the effect of art and contrivance. For all natural Good, every thing constitutionally beneficial to man, needs man's industry to make it better. We receive it at the provident hand of Heaven, rather with a capacity of being applied to our use, than immediately fitted for our service. We receive it indeed, in full measure, but rude and unprepared.

Now, concerning this technical improvement of moral good, it is in *artificial* bodies as in *natural*; two may be so essentially constituted, as to be greatly able to adorn and strengthen one another: But then, as in this case, a mere juxta-position of the parts is not sufficient; so neither is it in that: some union, some coalition, some artful insertion into each other will be necessary.

But then again, as in natural bodies the artist is unable to set about the proper operation, till he hath acquired a competent knowledge of the nature of those bodies, which are the subject of his skill; so neither can we know in what manner Religion may be best applied to the service of the State, till we have learned the real

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and essential natures both of a State and a Religion. The obvious qualities of both sufficiently shew, that they must needs have a good essed on each other, when properly applied; (as our artist, by his knowledge of the obvious qualities of two natural bodies, we suppose, may make the like conclusion) though we have not yet got sufficient acquaintance with them to make the proper application.

It behoves us therefore to gain a right knowledge of the nature both of a civil and of a religious Society.

I. To begin with civil Society: It was instituted either with the purpose of attaining all the good of every kind, it was even accidentally capable of producing; or only of some certain good, which the Institutors had in view, unconcerned with, and unattentive to any other. To suppose its end to be the vague purpose of acquiring all possible accidental good, is, in politics, a mere solecism; as hath been sufficiently shewn by the writers on this question \*. And how untrue it is in fact, may be gathered from what hath been faid in the beginning, of the origin of Society. Civil fociety then, I suppose, will be allowed to have been instituted for the attainment of some certain end or ends, exclusive of others: and this implies the necessity of distinguishing this end from others. Which distinction arises from the different properties of the things pretending. But again, amongst all those things, which are apt to obtrude, or have, in fact, obtruded upon men, as the ends of civil government, there is only this difference in their properties, as ends; That, one of them is attainable by civil Society only, and all the rest are easily obtained without it. The thing then with that property or quality must needs be the genuine end of civil Society. And this end is no other than SECURITY TO THE TEMPORAL LIRERTY AND PROPERTY OF MAN. For this end (as we have shewn) civil Society was invented; and this, civil Society alone is

<sup>\*</sup> See Locke's Defences of his Letters on Toleration. This appears to have been Aristotle's opinion——— \$\phi(\sigma) or \hat{\text{phi}} \sigma \text{phi} \text{phi}

able to procure. The great, but spurious rival of this end, the SALVATION OF SOULS, or the security of man's future happiness, belongs therefore to the other division. For this not depending on outward accidents, or on the will or power of another, as the body and goods do, may be as well attained in a state of nature, as in civil society; and therefore, on the principles here delivered, cannot be one of the causes of the institution of civil government; nor, consequently, one of the ends thereof. But if so, the promotion of it comes not within the proper province of the Magistrate.

- II. Secondly, as to religious Society, or a Church. This being instituted to preserve purity of faith and worship, its ultimate end is the SALVATION OF SOULS: From whence it follows,
- 1. That the religious Society must needs be SOVEREIGN, and IN-DEPENDENT ON THE CIVIL. Natural dependency of one Society on another, arises either from the law of nature, or of nations. Dependency by the law of nature, is from effence or generation. Dependency from essence there can be none. For this kind of dependency being a mode of natural union and coalition; and coalition being only where there is an agreement in eodem tertio; and there being no fuch agreement between two Societies effentially different, as these are, there can possibly be no dependency. Dependency from generation is where one Society springs up from another; as corporations, colleges, companies, and chambers, in a city. These, as well by the conformity of their ends and means, as by their charters of incorporation, betray their original and dependency. But religious Society, by ends and means quite different, gives internal proof of its not arising from the State; and we have shewn by external evidence \*, that it existed before the state had any being. Again, no dependency can arise from the law of nations, or the civil law. Dependency by this law is, where one and the same people composing two different Societies, the imperium of the

one clashes with the *imperium* of the other. And, in such case, the lesser Society becomes, by that law, dependent on the greater; because the not being so, would make that absurdity in politics, called *imperium in imperio*. But now civil and religious Society, having ends and means entirely disterent; and the means of civil Society being coercive power, which power therefore the religious hath not; it follows, that the administration of each Society is exercised in so remote spheres, that they can never meet to clash: And those Societies which never clash, necessity of state cannot bring into dependency on one another.

2. It follows, That this independent religious Society hath not, in and of itself, any coactive power of the civil kind: Its inherent jurisdiction being, in its nature and use, entirely different from that of the State. For if, as hath been proved, civil Society was instituted for the attainment of one species of good (all other good, requisite to human happiness, being to be attained without it) and that civil Society attains the good, for which it was ordained, by the fole mean of coercive power; then it follows, that the good, which any other kind of Society feeks, may be attained without that power; consequently, coercive power is unnecessary to a religious Society. But that mean, which is unnecessary for the attainment of any end, is likewise unfit; in all cases, but in that, where fuch mean is rendered unnecessary by the use of other means of the fame kind or species. But religious society attains its end by means of a different kind; therefore coercive power is not only unnecesfary, but unfit. Again, Ends, in their nature different, can never be attained by one and the same mean. Thus in the case before us: coercive power can only influence us to outward practice; by outward practice only, is the good which civil Society aims at, immediately effected; therefore is coercive power peculiarly fit for civil Society. But the good, which religious Society aims at, cannot be effected by outward practice; therefore coercive power is altogether unfit for this Society.

Having thus by a diligent enquiry found,

I. First, That the care of the civil Society extends only to the body, and its concerns; and the care of the religious Society only to the soul: it necessarily follows, that the civil Magistrate, if he will improve this natural influence of Religion by human art and contrivance, must seek some union or Alliance with the Church. For his office not extending to the care of souls, he hath not, in himself, power to enforce the influence of religion: and the Church's province not extending to the body, and consequently being without coactive power, she has not, in herself alone, a power of applying that influence to civil purposes. The conclusion is, that their joint powers must co-operate thus to apply and inforce the influence of religion. But they can never act conjointly but in union and alliance.

II. Secondly, having found that each fociety is fovereign, and independent on the other, it as necessarily follows, that such union can be produced only by free convention and mutual compact: because, whatever is sovereign and independent, can be brought to no act without its own consent: but nothing can give birth to a free convention, but a sense of mutual wants, which may be supplied; or a view of mutual benefits, which may be gained by it.

Such then is the nature of that Union which produceth a RELIGION BY LAW ESTABLISHED: and which is, indeed, no other than a public league and alliance for mutual support and desence. For the State not having the care of souls, cannot inforce the influence of religion; and therefore seeks the concurring aid of the Church: and the Church having no coercive power (the consequence of its care's not extending to bodies) as naturally slies for protection to the State: this being of that kind of Alliance which Grotius calls for the State: "Inæquale seedus (says he) his intelligo quod ex ipsa vi pactionis manentem prælationem quandam alteri donat: hos est, ubi quis tenetur alterius imperium as majestatem conservare

66 UT POTENTIORI PLUS HONORIS, INFIRMIORI PLUS AUXILII DE-66 PERATUR \*."

An Alliance, then, by free convention, being in its nature such that each party must have its motives for contracting; our next enquiry will be,

- I. What those motives were, which the State had for feeking, and the Church for accepting, the offers of an union: And,
  - II. The mutual benefits and advantages thereby arifing.

The motives the Magistrate had to seek this alliance, were these:

- I. To preserve the essence and purity of religion.
- II. To improve its usefulness, and apply its influence in the best manner.
- III. To prevent the mischief which, in its natural independent state, it might occasion to civil society.
- I. The Magistrate was induced to seek it, 1. As the necessary means of preserving the being of religion. For though (as hath been shewn in the treatise of the Alliance +) religion constitutes a Society; and though this Society will indeed, for some time, support the existence of religion, which, without it, would soon vanish from amongst men; yet, if we consider that religious Society is made up of the same individuals which compose the civil; and destitute likewise of all coercive power; we must needs see, that a Society, abandoned to its own fortune, without support or protection, would, in no long time, be swallowed up and lost. Of this opinion was a very able writer, whose knowledge of human nature will not be disputed: "Were it not, says he, for that sense of 44 virtue, which is principally preserved, so far as it is preserved, 66 BY NATIONAL FORMS AND HABITS OF RELIGION, men would " foon lose it all, run wild, prey upon one another, and do what " else the worst of savages do 1."

<sup>\*</sup> De Jure Belli et Pac. 1. I. c. 3. § 21.

<sup>+</sup> Book I. § 5.

<sup>1</sup> Wollaston's Religion of Nature delineated, p. 124. Quarto Edit. 1725.

2. But of whatever use an Alliance may be thought, for preserving the being of religion, the necessity of it, for preserving its purity, is most evident: for if truth, and public utility coincide, the nearer any religion approacheth to the truth of things, the fitter that religion is for the service of the State. That they do coincide, that is, that truth is productive of utility, and utility indicative of truth, may be proved on any principles, but the atheistic; and therefore we think it needless, in this place, to draw out the argument in form \*: Let us then consider the danger religion runs of deviating from truth, when left, in its natural state, to itself. In those circumstances, the men of highest credit, are such as are famed for greatest sanctity. This fanctity hath been generally understood to be then most perfect, when most estranged from the world, and all its habits and relations. But this being only to be acquired by fecession and retirement from affairs; and that fecesfion rendering man ignorant of civil Society, and of its rights and interests; in place of which will succeed, according to his natural temper, the destructive follies either of superstition or fanaticism, we must needs conclude, that religion, under such directors and reformers, (and God knows these are generally its lot) will deviate from truth; and confequently from a capacity, in proportion, of ferving civil Society. I wish I could not say, we have too many examples to support this observation. The truth is, we have seen, and yet do see religious Societies, some grown up, and continuing unsupported by, and ununited with the State; others, that, when fupported and united, have by strange arts brought the state into subjection, and become its tyrants and usurpers; and thereby defeated all the good which can arise from this alliance; such Societies, I fay, we have feen, whose religious doctrines are so little ferviceable to civil Government, that they can prosper only on the ruin and destruction of it. Such are those which teach the boliness of celibacy and asceticism, the sinfulness of defensive war, of capital punishments, and even of civil magistracy itself.

On the other hand, when religion is in Alliance with the State, as it then comes under the Magistrate's direction, those holy leaders having now neither credit nor power to do mischief, its purity must needs be reasonably well supported and preserved; for truth and public utility coinciding, the civil Magistrate, as such, will see it for his interest to seek after, and promote truth in religion: and, by means of public utility, which his office enables him so well to understand, he will never be at a loss, where such truth is to be found: so that it is impossible, under this civil influence, for religion ever to deviate far from truth; always supposing (for on fuch supposition this whole theory proceeds) a LEGI-TIMATE government, or civil policy, established on the principles of the natural rights and liberties of man: for an unequal and unjust Government, which feeks its own, not public utility, will always have occasion for error: and so, must corrupt religion both in principle and practice, to promote its own wrong interests.

- II. Secondly, the Magistrate was induced to seek this Alliance, as the necessary means to improve the usefulness, and to apply in the best manner the influence of religion for bis service. And this an Alliance does by several ways.
- of the civil MAGISTRATE, and on the LAWS of the state. For, in this alliance, where the religious Society is taken into the protection of the State, the supreme Magistrate, as will be shewn hereaster, is acknowledged HBAD of the religion. Now nothing can be imagined of more efficacy for securing the obedience of the people. Those two great masters in politics, Aristotle and Machiavel, as we have seen, thought it of sorce enough to gain reverence and security to a tyrant. What then must we suppose its efficacy in a legitimate Magistrature? The same veneration will extend itself over the Laws likewise: For while some of them are employed by

the State for the *Support of the Church*, and others *lent* to the Church to be employed in the *service of the State*, and all of them enacted by a *legislature*, in which churchmen have a considerable share (all these things being amongst the conditions of Alliance\*) laws under such direction, must need be regarded with the greatest reverence.

2. By lending to the Church a coactive power.—It may be remembered, that, in speaking of the innate defects of civil Society, we observed, that there were several forts of duties which civil laws could not inforce: fuch as the duties of IMPERFECT OBLIGATION: which a religious Society, when endowed with coercive power, to invigorate the influence of religion, is capable of exacting: and SUCH likewise of the duties of PERFECT OBLIGATION: whose breach is owing to the intemperance of the fenfual appetites; the severe prohibition of which threatens greater and more enormous evils: for while these unruly passions overflow, the stopping them in one place is causing them to break out with greater violence in another: as the rigorous punishment of fornication hath been generally seen to give birth to unnatural lusts. The effectual correction therefore of fuch evils must be begun by moderating and subduing the passions themselves. But this, civil laws are not understood to prefcribe+; as punishing those passions only when they proceed to as; and not rewarding the attempts to fubdue them: it must be a tribunal regarding irregular intentions as criminal, and good defires as meritorious, which can work this effect; and this can be no other than the tribunal of religion. When that is once done, a coactive power of the civil kind may be applied to good purpose; but not till then: And who fo fit to apply it as that Society, which prepared the subject for its due application and reception? I Again,

<sup>\*</sup> See the Alliance between Church and State, Book II. c. 3.

<sup>†</sup> See note [FF] at the end of this Book.

A jurisdiction somewhat resembling this we find in the samous court of Arropagus at Athens: which city was once the model of civil prudence as well as of religion, to the improved part of mankind. Isocrates speaking of this branch of jurisdiction in the Vol. I.

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Areopagus,

it hath been observed \*, that the State punishes deviations from the rule of right as crimes only; and not as fuch deviations, or as fins; and, on the idea of crimes, proportions its punishments; by which means some very enormous deviations from the rule of right, which do not immediately affect fociety, and so are not confidered as crimes, are overlooked by the civil tribunal: yet thefe, being, though mediately, very pernicious to the state, it is for its interests they should be brought before some capable tribunal. But, besides the civil, there is no other than the ecclesiastical, endowed with coactive power. Hence may be deduced the true, and only, end and use of SPIRITUAL COURTS. A church tribunal then, with coactive power, being necessary in all these cases; and a religious Society having, in itself, no such power, it must be borrowed from the State: but a State cannot lend it, without great danger to itself, but on the terms of an Alliance; a State therefore will be induced to feek this Alliance, in order to improve the natural efficacy of religion.

- 3. By conferring on the State the application of the efficacy of religion, and by putting it under the Magistrate's direction.—There are certain junctures when the influence of religion is more than ordinarily serviceable to the State: and these, the civil Magistrate only knows. Now while a Church is in its natural state of independency, it is not in his power to improve those conjunctures to the advantage of the State, by a proper application of religion: but when the Alliance is made, and consequently the Church under his direction, he hath then authority to prescribe such public exercises of religion, and at such times, and in such manner, as he finds the exigencies of State require.
- 4. By engaging the Church to apply its utmost endeavours in the fervice of the State. For an Alliance laying an obligation on the

<sup>\*</sup> See the Alliance, Book I. § 4.

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State to protect and defend the Church, and to provide a settled maintenance for its ministers, such benefits must needs produce the highest love and esteem for the benefactor: which will be returned, out of motives both of gratitude and interest, in the most zealous labours for the service of civil government.

III. Lastly, the State was induced to feek this Alliance, as the only means of preventing the mischiefs, which the Church, in its natural independent condition, might occasion to civil Society. For, in this state the Church having, of itself, a power of assembling for religious worship, factious men may commodiously, under that cover, hatch and carry on defigns against the peace of civil government: and the influence which popular and leading men gain over the consciences of such assemblies, by the frequency of occasional harangues, may easily ripen these contrivances into act, when strengthened with the specious pretext of religion: all which evils are effectually remedied by this Alliance. For then, the civil Magistrate being become protector of the Church, and, consequently, supreme HEAD and director of it, the ministry is mostly in his power; that mutual dependency, between the clergy and people, being, by means of a fettled revenue, quite broken and destroyed. He admits and excludes to the exercise of their function, as he sees fit; and grants it to none, but fuch as give a previous fecurity for their allegiance to him: by which means, all that influence, which the ministers and leaders in a Church had over it before the Alliance. as the protectors of religion, is now drawn off from them, and placed folely in the civil Magistrate.

Another mischief there is in this unallied condition of the Church, still as certain and satal, whenever more than one religion is sound in a State. For in these latter ages, every sect thinking itself the only true church, or, at least, the most perfect, is naturally pushed on to advance its own scheme upon the ruins of the rest: and where argument sails, civil power is brought in, as soon as ever a party can be formed in the public administration: and we find,

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they have been but too successful in persuading the Magistrate that his interests are concerned in their religious differences. Now the most effectual remedy to the dangerous and strong convulsions, into which States are so frequently thrown by these struggles, is an Alliance, which establishes one church, and gives a full toleration to the rest; only keeping sectaries out of the public administration: From a heedless admission into which, these disorders have arisen.

Having now shewn the principal motives which engaged the State to seek an alliance with the Church;

I come, in the next place, to consider the motives which the Church had to accept of it. For this being, as is observed, a free convention, unless the Church, as well as State, had its proper views, no Alliance could have been formed. To discover these motives, we must recollect what hath been said of the nature and end of a religious Society: for the benefits adapted to that nature and end, must be her legitimate motive: but if so, this benefit can be no other than security from all external violence. The State indeed could not justly offer it, had no Alliance been made: but this is no reason why the Church should not think it for its interest to secure its natural right by compass; any more than that one State should not stipulate with another not to do it violence, though that other was under prior obligations, by the law of nature and nations, to forbear.

But by this Alliance between the two Societies, the State does more: it not only promises not to injure the Church confederated, but to serve it; that is, to protect it from the injuries of other religious Societies, which then exist, or may afterwards arise in the State. How one religious Society may be injuriously affected by another, hath been shewn just before; how great those injuries may prove, will be shewn hereafter. It must needs then be the first care of a Church, and a reasonable care, to preserve itself, by all lawful ways, from outward violence. A State then, as hath been said, in order to induce the Church's acceptance of this offer,

must propose some benefit by it: and because this is the only legitimate benefit the Church can receive, it must propose this: which, therefore, being considerable, will be the Church's motive for Alliance.

There are only two other considerations that can be esteemed motives: the one, to engage the State to propagate the established religion by force: and the other, to bestow bonours, riches, and powers upon it. Now, on recurring to the nature and end of the two Societies, the sirst motive will be found unjust; and the second, impertinent. It is unjust in the Church to require the engagement; because the perferming it would be violating the natural right every man hath of worshipping God according to his own conscience. It is unjust in the State to engage in it; because, as we have shewn, its jurisdiction extendeth not to opinions.

It is impertinent in a Church to aim at riches, honours, and powers, because these are things which, as a Church, she can neither use nor profit by; for they have no natural tendency to promote the ultimate end of this Society, salvation of souls; nor the immediate end, purity of worship. "Nihil ecclesia sibi nisi sidem "possidet "," says St. Ambrose. We conclude, therefore, that the only legitimate motive she could have, was security and protection from outward violence.

On these mutual motives was formed this FREE ALLIANCE; which gave birth to a CHURCH BY LAW ESTABLISHED.

Now as from the nature of the two Societies is discovered what kind of union only they could enter into; so from that consideration, together with the motives they had in uniting, may be deduced, by necessary inference, the reciprocal TERMS and conditions of that union.

From the mutual motives inducing thereunto, it appears, that the great preliminary and fundamental article of Alliance is this,

<sup>\*</sup> Epift. contra Symmachum.

THAT THE CHURCH SHALL APPLY ITS UTMOST INFLUENCE IN THE SERVICE OF THE STATE; AND THAT THE STATE SHALL SUP-PORT AND PROTECT THE CHURCH.

But in order to the performance of this agreement, there must be a mutual communication of their respective powers: for the province of each Society being naturally distinct and different, each can have to do in the other's, but by mutual concession.

But again, these Societies being likewise as naturally independent one on the other, a mutual concession cannot be safely made, without one of them, at the same time, giving up its INDEPENDENCY: from whence arises what Grotius, we see, called MANENS PRE-LATIO: which, in his Fadus inequale, the more powerful Society hath over the less.

Now from these two conclusions, which spring necessarily from the great fundamental article of union, we deduce all the terms, conditions, mutual grants, and concessions, which complete this Alliance.

For, from this obligation on the Church to apply its influence in the service of the State, arise a settled maintenance for the Ministers of Religion; and an ecclesiastical jurisdiction with coastive power: which things introduce again, on the other side, the dependency of the clergy on the state. And from the State's obligation to support and protest the Church, ariseth the ecclesiastical supremacy of the civil magistrate; which again introduceth, on the other hand, the right of churchmen to partake of the legislature.

Thus are all these Rights and Privileges closely interwoven and mutually connected by a necessary dependence on each other.

But to be more particular in the grounds and reasons of each grant and privilege, we will now, in a different and more commodious order for this purpose, examine,

- I. What the Church receives from the State.
- II. What the Church GIVES to it.

Which will present us with a new view of the two Societies, as they appear under an Establishment; and leave nothing wanting to enable us to form a perfect judgement of their natures.

- I. What the Church receives from the state by this Alliance, is,
- I. First, A public and settled endowment for its ministers. The reasons of it are, 1. To render the religious Society, whose assistance the State so much wants, more firm and durable. 2. To invite and encourage the clergy's best service to the State, in rendering those committed to their care, virtuous. But, 3. and principally, in order to destroy that mutual dependency between the clergy and people, which arises from the former's being maintained by the voluntary contributions of the latter; the only maintenance the clergy could have, before the two Societies were allied; and which dependence, we have shown to be productive of great mischies to the State. Add to all this, that as the clergy are now under the Magistrate's direction, and consequently become a public Order in the state, it is but sit and decent, that the State should provide them with a public maintenance.
- 2. The second privilege the Church receives from this Alliance is, a place for ber representatives in the Legislature. For, as it necessarily follows, from that fundamental article of Alliance of the State's supporting and protesting the Church, that the Church must, in return, give up its independency to the State, whereby the State becomes empowered to determine in all church-matters, so far as the Church is considered under the idea of a Society; as this, I say, necessarily follows, the Church must needs have its representatives in the Legislature, to prevent that power, which the State receives in return for the protection it affords, from being perverted to the Church's hurt: for the giving up its independency, without referving a right of representation in the legislature, would be making itself, instead of a subject, a slave to the State. Besides, without these Representatives no laws could be reasonably made concerning the Church: because no free man, or body, can be bound by laws,

to which they have not given their consent, either in person, or by representative. So that, as the Church when she entered into alliance, cannot juftly, we may prefume the did not willingly,

give up her independency without the refervation of some such prerogative.

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3. The third and last privilege is, a jurisdiction, inforced by civil coactive power, for reformation of manners. It is one of the preliminary articles of this Alliance, that the Church should apply its best influence in the service of the State. But there is no way in which it can be so effectually inforced as by a jurisdiction of this kind. It hath been shewn above, that there are a numerous set of duties, both of imperfect obligation, which civil laws could not reach; and several of perfect obligation, which, by reason of the intemperance of the fenfual passions, from whence the breach of those duties proceeds, civil laws could not effectually inforce; as their violence yielded only to the influence of Religion; both which, however, the good of the Community requires should be inforced; and which an ecclesiastical tribunal, intrusted with coactive power, is only able to inforce. And, indeed, the sense of those wants and defects, which these courts do supply, was the principal motive of the State's feeking this Alliance. On the other hand, the Church having now given up her supremacy, she would without the accession of this authority, be left naked and defenceless, and reduced to a condition unbecoming her dignity, and dangerous to her safety.

II. Let us now fee, what the Church gives to the State. It is, in a word, this: The resigning up her independency; and making the civil Magistrate ber SUPREME HEAD, without whose approbation and allowance she can administer, transact, or decree nothing in quality of a policied Society. For as the State, by this Alliance, hath undertaken the protection of the Church; and as no Society can fafely afford protection to another over which it hath no power, it necessarily follows that the civil Magistrate must be supreme. Besides,

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when the State, by this convention, covenanted to afford protection to the Church, that contract was made to a particular Church of one denomination, and of such determined doctrine and discipline. But now, that protection, which might be advantageous to the State in union with such a Church, might be disadvantageous to it, in union with one of a different doctrine and discipline: therefore, when protection is given to a Church, it must be at the same time provided, that no alteration be made in it, without the State's approbation and allowance. Farther, the State having endowed its clergy, and bestowed upon them a jurisdiction with coactive power, these privileges might create an imperium in imperio, had not the civil Magistrate, in return, the supremacy of the Church. The necessity of the thing, therefore, invests him with this right and title.

Thus have we shewn the mutual privileges given and received by Church and State, in entering into this famous convention: the aim of the State being, agreeably to its nature, UTILITY; and the aim of the Church, agreeably to its nature, TRUTH. From whence we may observe, that as these privileges all took their rise, by neceffary inference, from the fundamental article of the convention, which was, that the Church should serve the State; and the State protest the Church; so they receive all possible addition of strength from their mutual connection with, and dependency on, one another. This we have cause to desire may be received as a certain mark that our plan of Alliance is no precarious arbitrary hypothesis, but a theory, founded in reason, and the invariable nature of things. For having, from the real essence of the two Societies, collected the necessity of allying, and the freedom of the compact; we have, from the necessity, fairly introduced it; and from its freedom, consequentially established every mutual term and condition of it. So that now if the reader should ask, where this charter or treaty of convention for the union of the two Societies, on the terms here delivered, is to be met with; we are enabled to answer him. We say, Vol. I. Hhh it

it may be found in the same archive with the samous original compact between magistrate and people, so much insisted on in the vindication of the common rights of subjects. Now, when a sight of this compact is required of the defenders of civil liberty, they hold it sufficient to say, that it is enough for all the purposes of fact and right, that such original compact is the only legitimate foundation of civil Society: that if there were no such thing formally executed, there was virtually: that all differences between magistrate and people, ought to be regulated on the supposition of such a compact; and all Government reduced to the principles therein laid down: for, that the happiness, of which civil Society is productive, can only be attained, when formed on those principles. Now something like this we say of our ALLIANCE BETWEEN CHURCH AND STATE.

Hitherto we have considered this Alliance as it produceth an establishment, under its most simple form; i.e. where there is but one Religion in the State: but it may so happen, that, either at the time of convention, or afterwards, there may be more than one.

- 1. If there be more than one at the time of convention, the State allies itself with the largest of the religious Societies. It is sit the State should do so, because the larger the religious Society is (where there is an equality in other points) the better enabled it will be to answer the ends of an Alliance; as having the greatest number under its influence. It is scarce possible it should do otherwise; because the two Societies being composed of the same individuals, the greatly prevailing religion must have a majority of its members in the assemblies of State; who will naturally prefer their own religion to any other. With this Religion is the alliance made; and a full TOLERATION given to all the rest; yet under the restriction of a TEST LAW, to keep them from hurting that which is established.
- 2. If these different religions spring up after the Alliance hath been formed; then, whenever they become considerable, a test law

is necessary, for the security of the established church. For amongst diversities of fects where every one thinks itself the only true, or at least the most pure, every one aims at rising on the ruins of the rest; which it calls, bringing into conformity with itself. The means of doing this, when reason fails, which is rarely at hand, and more rarely heard when it is, will be by getting into the public adminiftration, and applying the civil power to the work. But when one of these Religions is the established, and the rest under a toleration; then envy, at the advantages of an establishment, will join the tolerated churches in confederacy against it, and unite them in one common attack to disturb its quiet. In this imminent danger, the allied church calls upon the State, for the performance of its contract; which thereupon gives her a TEST LAW for her security: whereby, the entrance into the Administration of public affairs (the only way, the threatened mischief is effected) is shut to all but members of the established church.

Thus a TEST LAW took its birth, whether at or after the time of Alliance. That the State is under the highest obligations to provide the Church with this security, we shall shew,

- t. By the Alliance, the State promifed to protect the Church, and to secure it from the injuries and insults of its enemies. An attempt in the members of any other church to get into the administration, in order to deprive the stablished church of the covenanted rights which it enjoys, either by sharing those advantages with it, or by drawing them from it to itself, is highly injurious. And we have shewn, that where there are diversities of religions, this attempt will be always making. The State then must defeat the attempt: but there is no other way of defeating it, than by hindering its enemies from entering into the Administration: and they can be hindered only by a test law.
- 2. Again, this promise of protection is of such a nature as may, on no pretence, be dispensed with. For protection was not simply a condition of Alliance, but, on the Church's part, the only condi-

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- tion of it. We have shewn, that all other benefits and advantages are foreign to a Church, as such, and improper for it. Now. not performing the only condition of a contract, virtually breaks and diffolves it: especially if we consider that this only condition is both necessary and just. Necessary, as a free convention must have mutual conditions; and, but for this condition, one fide would be without any: Just, as the convention itself is founded on the laws of nature and nations; and this the only condition which fuits the nature of a Church to claim. If it be pretended that debarring good subjects from places of bonour and profit, in the disposal of the Magistrate, is unjust; I reply, that the affertion, though every where taken for granted, is falle; it being founded on the principle, that reward is one of the fanctions of civil laws, which I have shewn to be a mistake \*; and that all, a member of Society can claim, for the discharge of his duty, is protection. So that, farther reward than this, no subject having a right to, all places of honour and profit are free donations, and in the absolute disposal of the Magistrate.
- 3. But again, the Church, in order to enable the State to perform this fole condition of protection, consented to the giving up its supremacy and independency, to the civil Sovereign: whence it follows, that, whenever the enemies of the established Church get into the magistrature, to which, as we have said, the supremacy of the Church is transferred by the Alliance, she becomes a prey, and lies entirely at their mercy; being now, by the loss of her supremacy, in no condition of defence, as she was in her natural state, unprotected and independent; so that the not securing her by a test law, is betraying, and giving her up bound to her enemies.
- 4. But lastly, had no promise of protection been made, yet the State would have lain under an indispensable necessity of providing a test law, for its own peace and security. It hath been observed, that wherever there are diversities of religion, each sect, believing its

own the true, strives to advance itself on the ruins of the rest. If this doth not succeed by dint of argument, these partisans are apt to have recourse to the coercive power of the State: which is done by introducing a party into the public administration. And they have always had art enough to make the State believe that its interests were much concerned in the fuccess of their religious quarrels. What perfecutions, rebellions, revolutions, loss of civil and religious liberty, these intestine struggles between sects have occasioned, is well known to fuch as are acquainted with the history of mankind. To prevent these mischiefs was, as hath been shewn, one great motive for the State's feeking Alliance with the Church: for the obvious remedy was the establishing one church, and giving a free toleration to the reft. But if, in administring this cure, the State should stop short, and not proceed to exclude the tolerated religions from entering into the public administration, such imperfect application of the remedy would infinitely heighten the distemper: for, before the Alliance, it was only a mistaken aim in propagating truth, which occasioned these disorders: but now, the zeal for opinions would be out of measure inflamed by envy and emulation; which the temporal advantages, enjoyed by the established church, exclusive of the rest, will always occasion: And what mischiefs this would produce, had every sect a free entry into the administration, the reader may easily conceive. If it be said, that, would men content themselves, as in reason they ought, with enjoying their own opinions, without obtruding them upon others, these evils, which require the remedy of a test law, would never happen. This is very true: and so, would men but observe the rule of justice in general, there would be no need to have recourse to civil Society, to rectify the violations of it.

In a word, an ESTABLISHED RELIGION WITH A TEST LAW is the universal voice of Nature. The most savage nations have employed it to civilize their manners; and the politest knew no other way to prevent their return to barbarity and violence.

Thus

Thus the city of ATHENS, so humane and free, exacted an oath of all their youth for the security of the established religion: for, Athens being a democracy, every citizen had a constant share in the administration. A copy of this oath, the strongest of all tests, is preserved by Stobæus, who transcribed it from the writings of the Pythagoreans, the great school of ancient politics. It is conceived in these words: " I will not dishonour the sacred arms ", nor de-" fert my comrade in battle: I will DEFEND AND PROTECT MY 66 COUNTRY AND MY RELIGION, whether alone or in conjunction " with others: I will not leave the public in a worse condition "than I found it, but in a better: I will be always ready to obey 66 the supreme magistrate, with prudence; and to submit to the " established laws, and to all such as shall be hereafter established " by full confent of the people: and I will never connive at any " other who shall presume to despise or disobey them; but will re-"venge all fuch attempts on the fanctity of the republic, either " alone or in conjunction with the people: and lastly, I WILL CON-" FORM TO THE NATIONAL RELIGION. So help me those gods " who are the avengers of perjury +."

Here we see, that after each man had sworn, to defend and protest the religion of bis country, in consequence of the obligation the State lies under to protect the established worship, he concludes, I will conform to it; the directest and strongest of all tests.

<sup>\*</sup> Order to ited, the facred arms, by what follows, feems to mean those which the lovers presented to their favourite youths. Concerning this institution, see what is said in the explanation of Virgil's episode of Nisus and Euryalus, in sect. iv. of this book.

<sup>†</sup> Οὐ καίαισχυνῶ ὅπλα τὰ ἰιρὰ, ἀδ ἰγκαίαλιίψα τὸν παρακάτην ὅτα ὰν κοιχήσω ΑΜΥΝΩ ΔΕ ΚΑΙ ΥΠΕΡ ΙΕΡΩΝ, κὰ ὑπὰρ ὁσίαν κὰ μόνΦ, κὰ μίὰ πολλῶν. τὰν παίρίδα δὶ ἀκ ἰλάσσα παραδύσα, πλεία δὶ κὰ ἀρεία, ἄσαν ἀν παραδίξομαι κὰ εὐπιούσω τῶν ἀεὶ κινόιλων ἰμφρόνως, κὰ τοῖς θισμοῖς τοῖς ἐδρυμένοις πείσυμαι, κὰ ἄς τινας ἀν ἄλλας τὰ πλὰθΦ ἐδρύσηῖαι ἐμοφρόνως κὰ ἄν τις ἐναιρὰ τὰς θισμὰ; ὰ μὰ πείθαι, ἀκ ὑπὶρέψω, ἀμυνῶ Ϝὶ κὰ μένος, κὰ μείὰ πάθων κὰ ΙΕΡΑ ΤΑ ΠΑΤΡΙΑ ΤΙΜΗΕΩ ὅτορις Θιοὶ τώταν. Joan. Stobni de Rep. Serm. xli. p. 243, Lugd. Ed. 1608.

But a test of conformity to the established worship, was not only required of those who bore a share in the civil administration, but of those too who were chosen to preside in their religious rites. Demosthenes hath recorded the oath which the priestesses of Bacchus, called \(\Gamma\_{\text{eqcipai}}\), took on entering into their Office. "I ob"ferve a religious chassity, and am clean and pure from all other
desilements, and from conversation with man: AND I CELEBRATE
"THE THEOINEIA AND IOBACCHIA TO BACCHUS, ACCORDING TO
"THE ESTABLISHED RITES, AND AT THE PROPER SEASONS \*."

Nor were the Romans less watchful for the support of the established religion, as may be seen by a speech of the consul Posthumius in Livy, occasioned by some horrid abuses committed, through the clandestine exercise of foreign worship. "How often, says he, in the times of our fathers and foresathers, hath this affair been recommended to the Magistrates; to prohibit all foreign worship; to drive the priests and sacrifices from the cirque, the forum, and the city; to search up, and burn books of prophecies; and to abolish all modes of sacrificing, differing from the Roman discipline? For those sage and prudent men, instructed in all kind of divine and human laws, rightly judged that nothing tended so much to overthrow religion, as when men celebrated the sacred rites, not after their own, but foreign customs +."

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;Ayırı'u, n' sipl nabaçà, n' âyrà ând του άλλου è nabaşıvilor, n' ân' årdid; συνοσίας, n' τὰ Θιοίνα, n' 'Ιοδακχιῖα γιζαίρυ τῷ Διονόσφ ΚΑΤΑ ΤΑ ΠΑΤΡΙΑ, n' ir τοῖς nabinuou χχένοις. Orat. cont. Nearam.

<sup>†</sup> Quoties hoc patrum avorumque ætate negotium est magistratibus datum, ut sacra externa sieri vetarent; sacrisiculos, vatesque soro, circo, urbe prohiberent; vaticinos libros conquirerent, comburerentque; omnem disciplinam sacrisicandi, præterquam more Romano, abolerent? Judicabant enim prudentissimi viri omnis divini humanique juris, nihil æque dissolvendæ religionis esse, quam ubi non patrio, sed externo ritu sacrisicaretur. Hist, lib. xxxix.

But when I say all regular policied states had an established religion. I mean no more than be would do, who, deducing Society from its true original, should, in order to persuade men of the benefits it produceth, affirm that all nations had a civil policy. For, as this writer could not be supposed to mean that every one constituted a free State, on the principles of public liberty (which yet was the only Society he proposed to prove was founded on truth, and productive of public good) because it is notorious, that the far greater part of civil policies are founded on different principles, and abused to different ends; so neither would I be understood to mean, when I fay all nations concurred in making this union, that they all exactly discriminated the natures, and fairly adjusted the rights of BOTH SOCIETIES, on the principles here laid down; though an ESTABLISHMENT resulting from this discrimination and adjustment, be the only one I would be supposed to recommend. On the contrary, I know this union hath been generally made on miftaken principles; or, if not so, hath degenerated by length of time. And, as it was sufficient for that writer's purpose, that those Societies, good or bad, proved the sense, all men had of the benefits refulting from civil policy in general, though they were oft mistaken in the application; so it is sufficient for ours, that this universal concurrence in the Two Societies to unite, shews the sense of mankind concerning the utility of such union. And lastly, as that writer's principles are not the less true on account of the general deviation from them in forming civil Societies; fo may not ours, though fo few states have suffered themselves to be directed by them in practice, nor any man, before, delivered them in Speculation.

Such then is the *Theory* here offered to the world; of which, whoever would fee a full account, and the feveral parts cleared from objections, may confult the treatife mentioned before, intituled, *The Alliance between Church and State*; in which we pretend

to have discovered a plain and simple truth, of the highest concernment to civil Society, long lost and hid under the learned obscurity arising from the collision of contrary false principles.

But it is now time to proceed with our main subject. We have here given a short account of the true nature of the Alliance between Church and State; both to justify the conduct of the ancient Lawgivers in establishing religion; and to shew the infinite service of this institution to civil Society. Another use of it may be the gaining an exacter knowledge of the nature of the established religions in the pagan world: for, having the true theory of an Establishment, it serves as a straight line to discover all the obliquities to which it is applied.

I shall therefore consider the causes, which facilitated the establishment of religion in the ancient world: and likewise those causes which prevented the establishment from receiving its due form.

I. Ancient pagan religion consisted in the worship of local tutelary Deities; which, generally speaking, were supposed to be the authors of their civil Institutes. The consequence of this was, that the State, as well as particulars, was the subject of religion. So that this religion could not but be national and established; that is, protected and encouraged by the civil Power. For how could that religion, which had the national God for its object; and the State, as an artificial man, for its subject, be other than national and established?

II. But then these very things, which so much promoted an established religion, prevented the union's being made upon a just and equitable sooting. 1. By giving a wrong idea of civil Society 2. By not giving a right form to the religious.

1. It is nothing strange, that the ancients should have a wrong idea of civil Society; and should suppose it ordained for the cognizance of religious, as well as of civil matters, while they believed in a local tutelary Deity, by whose direction they were formed Vol. I. I ii into

into Community; and while they held that Society, as such, was the *subject* of religion, contrary to what has been shewn above, that the *civil* Society's offer of a voluntary alliance with the *religious*, proceeded from its having no power in itself to inforce the influence of religion to the service of the State.

2. If their religion constituted a proper Society, it was yet a Society dependent on the State, and therefore not fovereign. Now it appears that no voluntary alliance can be made, but between two independent sovereign Societies. But, in reality, Pagan religion did not constitute any Society at all. For it is to be observed, that the unity of the object of faith, and conformity to a formula of dogmatic theology, as the terms of communion, are the great foundation and bond of a religious Society. Now these things were wanting in the several national religions of Paganism: in which there was only a conformity in public Ceremonies. The national Pagan religion therefore did not properly compose a Society; nor do we find by Antiquity, that it was ever considered under that idea; but only as part of the State; and in that view, indeed, had its particular Societies and Companies, such as the colleges of Priests and Prophets.

These were such errors and desects as destroyed much of the utility, which results from religious Establishments, placed upon a right bottom. But yet religious Establishments they were; and, notwithstanding all their impersections, served for many good purposes: such as preserving the being of Religion:—bestowing additional veneration on the person of the Magistrate, and on the laws of the State:—giving the Magistrate the right of applying the civil essimate of religion:—and giving Religion a coactive power for the reformation of manners. And thus much for BSTABLISHMENTS.

<sup>•</sup> See The Alliance between Church and State, Book I. § 5.

## SECT. VI.

HE last instance to be assigned of the Magistrate's care of religion, shall be that universal practice, in the ancient world, of religious TOLERATION; or the permitting the free exercise of all religions, how different soever from the National and Established. For though the very nature and terms of an Established religion implied the Magistrate's peculiar favour and protection; and though in fact, they had their Tell-laws for its support, wherever there was diversity of worship; yet it was ancient policy to allow a large and full TOLERATION. And even in the extent of this allowance they feem generally to have had juster notions than certain of our modern Advocates for religious Liberty. They had no conception that any one should be indulged in his presumption of extending it to Religious Rites and practices burtful to Society, or difbonourable to Humanity. There are many examples in Antiquity of this fage restriction. I shall only mention the universal concurrence in punishing Magical Rites, by which the health and safety of particulars were supposed to be injuriously affected. And Suetonius's burning the facred grove in Anglesea\*, in which human facrifices were offered up by the Druids, was but the beginning of what those modern Advocates, above mentioned, would call a Persecution against the Order itself, whose obstinate perseverance in this infernal practice could not be overcome but by their total extirpation.

Two principal causes induced the ancient Lawgivers to the sage and reasonable conduct of a large and full toleration.

<sup>\* — &</sup>quot;Præsidium posshac impositum victis, excisique Luci, saeves superstitionibus sacri. Nam cruore captivo adolere aras, et hominum fibris consulere dens sas habebant." Tac. Ann. 1. xiv. c. 30.——Superstition amongst the Greeks and Romans had its free course. But the save superstitiones, the savege and cruel Rites, injurious and dishonourable to human nature and civil Society, were rigorously sorbidden.

I. They considered that Religion seldom or never makes a real impression on the minds of those who are forced into a profession of it: and yet, that all the service Religion can do to the State, is by working that real impression \*. They concluded, therefore, that the profession of Religion should be FREE.

Hence may be understood the strange blindness of those modern Politicians, who expect to benefit the State by forcing men to outward conformity; which only making hypocrites and atheifts, destroys the sole means religion hath of serving the State. here, by a common fate of Politicians, they fell from one blunder into another. For having first, in a tyrannical adherence to their own scheme of Policy, or superstitious fondness for the established System of Worship, infringed upon religious Liberty; and then beginning to find, that diversity of Sects was hurtful to the State, as it always will be, while the rights of Religion are violated; instead of repairing the mistake, and restoring religious Liberty. which would have stifled this pullulating evil in the seed, by affording it no further nourishment, they took the other course; and endeavoured, by a thorough discipline of Conformity, violently to rend it away: and with it they rooted up and deftroyed all that good to Society, which so naturally springs from Religion, when it hath once taken fast hold of the human mind.

II. This was the most legitimate principle they went upon, and had the most lasting effect. They had another, which, though less ingenuous, was of more immediate influence; and this was the keeping up the warmth and vigour of religious impressions, by the introduction and toleration of new Religions and foreign Worship. For they supposed that "piety and virtue then chiefly in-

<sup>\*</sup>In specie autem sictæ simulationis, sicut reliquæ virtutes, ita PIETAS inesse non potest; cum qua simul et sanctitatem et religionem tolli necesse est: quibus sublatis, perturbatio vitæ sequitur et magna consusso. Atque haud scio, an PIETATE adversus deos sublata sides etiam, et societas humani generis, et una excellentissima virtus, justitatollatur. Cic. De nat. deor. 1. I. c. 2.

"fluence the mind, while men are busied in the performance of " religious Rites and Ceremonies ";" as Tully observes, in the words of Pythagoras, the most celebrated of the pagan Lawgivers. Nor does this at all contradict the Roman maxim, as delivered by Posthumius in Livy [see p. 423.] For that maxim relates to public Religion, or the Religion of the State; this concerns private Religion, or the religion of Particulars. Now vulgar Paganism being not only false, but highly absurd, as having its foundation folely in the fancy and the passions; variety of Worships was neceffary to fuit every one's taste and humour. The genius of it disposing its followers to be inconstant, capricious, and fond of novelties; weary of long-worn Ceremonies, and immoderately fond of new. And in effect we see amongst the same people, notwithstanding the universal notion of tutelary Deities, that, in this age, one God or mode of worship, in that, another mode had the vogue. And every new God, or new ceremony, rekindled the languid fire of Superstition: just as in modern Rome, every last Saint draws the Multitude to his shrine.

For, here it is to be observed, that in the Pagan world, a tolerated Religion did not imply distinct from the established, according to our modern ideas of toleration. Nor indeed could it, according to the general nature and genius of ancient Idolatry. Tolerated Religions there are rather subservient to the established, or supernumeraries of it, than in opposition to it. But then they were far from being on a sooting with the established, or partakers of its privileges.

But men going into Antiquity under the impression of modern ideas, must needs form very inaccurate judgements of what they find. So, in this case, because few tolerated Religions are to be met with in Paganism, according to our sense of toleration, which is

De Leg. 1. II. c. 11.

<sup>\* —</sup> Siquidem et illud bene diclum est a Pythagora, doctissimo viro, tum maxime et pietatem et religionem versari in animis, cum rebus divinis operam daremus.

the allowance of a Religion offosed to the national; and confequently, because no one is watched with that vigilance which ours demand, but all used with more indulgence than a Religion, reprobating the established, can pretend to; on this account, I say, a salse opinion hath prevailed, that, in the Pagan world, all kinds of Religion were upon an equal footing, with regard to the State. Hence, we hear a noble writer perpetually applauding \* wise Antiquity, for the sull and free liberty it granted in matters of Religion, so agreeable to the principles of truth and public utility; and perpetually arraigning the unsociable humour of Christianity for the contrary practice; which, therefore, he would infinuate, was built on contrary principles.

On this account, it will not be improper to consider, a little, the genius of Paganism, as it is opposed to, what we call, true Religion: Which will shew us how easily the civil Magistrate brought about that Toleration, which he had such great reasons of State to promote; and at the same time, teach these objectors to know, that the good effect of this general tolerance, as far as the genius of Religion was concerned in its promotion, was owing to the egregious salshood and absurdity of Paganism: and that, on the other hand, the evil effects of intolerance under the Christian religion, proceeded from its truth and persection; not the natural consequence, as these men would infinuate, of a salse Principle, but the abuse of a true one.

Ancient Paganism was an aggregate of several distinct Religions, derived from so many pretended revelations. Why it abounded in these, proceeded, in part, from the great number of Gods of human invention. As these Religions were not laid on the soundation, so neither were they raised on the destruction of one another. They were not laid on the soundation of one another; because, having given to their Gods, as local tutelary Deities +, contrary natures

<sup>\*</sup> See the Characteristics, passim.

<sup>+</sup> See note [GG] at the end of this Book.

and dispositions, and distinct and separate interests, each God set up, on his own bottom, and held little in common with the rest. They were not raised on the destruction of one another; because, as hath been observed, the several Religions of Paganism did not consist in matters of belief, and dogmatic theology, in which, where there is a contrariety, Religions destroy one another; but in matters of practice, in Rites and Ceremonies; and in these, a contrariety did no harm: For having given their Gods different natures and interests, where was the wonder if they clashed in their commanded Rites; or if their worshippers should think this no mark of their false pretensions?

These were horrible desects in the very essence of Pagan theology: and yet from these would necessarily arise an universal toleration: for each Religion admitting the other's pretensions, there must needs be a perfect harmony and INTERCOMMUNITY amongst them. Julian makes this the diffinguishing character of the pagan Religion. For the imperial Sophist writing to the people of Alexandria, and upbraiding them for having forsaken the religion of their country, in order to aggravate the charge, infinuates them to be guilty of ingratitude, as having forgotten those happy times when all Egypt worshipped the Gods in common, - & su eicegresal μνήμη της σαλαιάς ύμας εκείνης ευδαιμονίας, ήνίκα ήν ΚΟΙΝΩΝΙΑ μέν ωρός Θεες Λίγυπω τη φάση, ωολλων δε απελαύομεν αγαθών. And, in his book against the Christian Religion, he says, there were but two commands in the Decalogue, that were peculiar to the Jews, and which the Pagans would not own to be reasonable, namely, the observation of the Sabbath, and the baving no other Gods but the Creator of all things. Holov Ed: @ isi (fays he) wpos two Dewr itu tu, Ου προσκυνήσεις Θεοϊς έτεροις, χ τε, Μιήσθηλι των σαβδάτων, δ μή τως άλλας οιέζαι χρηναι φυλάτζειν ένζολάς +. The First Cause of all things. we see, was acknowledged by the Gentile Sages: what stuck with

<sup>\*</sup> See note [HH] at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> Ap. S. Cyril. cont. Julian. l. v.

them was the not worshipping other Gods IN COMMON.——For according to the genius of Paganism, as here explained, no room was left for any other disputes, but whose God was most powerful; except where, by accident, it became a question, between two nations inhabiting the same country, who was truly the TUTELAR Deity of the place. As once we are told happened in Egypt, and broke out into a religious war:

Inde furor vulgo, quod numina vicinorum Odit uterque locus, cum solos CREDIT HABENDOS Esse deos, quos ipse colit \*.

Here the question was not, which of the two worshipped a Phantom, and which a God, but whose God was the tutelar God of the place. Yet to infult the tutelar Gods of the place was a thing so rare, and deemed so prodigious, that Herodotus thinks it a clear proof of Cambyses's incurable madness that he outraged the Religion of Egypt, by stabbing their God Apis and turning their monkey Deities into ridicule +. Notwithstanding a late noble writer, from this account of Juvenal, would perfuade us I, that intolerance was of the very nature and genius of the Egyptian theology, from whence all Paganism arose. "The common heathen religion (says 46 he) was supported chiefly from that fort of enthusiasm, which 46 is raised from the external objects of grandeur, majesty, and what "we call august. On the other hand, the Egyptian or SYRIAN " religions, which lay most in mystery and concealed rights, baving " less dependance on the Magistrate, and less of that decorum of art, " politeness, and magnificence, ran into a more pusillanimous, fri-44 volous, and mean kind of superstition; the observance of days, "the forbearance of meats, and the contention about traditions, se-" niority of laws, and priority of godships.

<sup>\*</sup> Juvenal, Sat. xv.

<sup>†</sup> Kaubiene di, de hépues 'Aspérlos, dià rure re adianna arlina inarn, tus del expéries operágue. Thalia, c. 30. in initio.

<sup>1</sup> Characteristics, vol. iii. Miscel. 2.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Summus

" Summus utrimque

"Inde furor vulgo, &c \*."

Well might he fay, he suspected "that it would be urged against "him, that he talked at random and without book +." For the very contrary of every thing he here fays, is the truth. And his supposing the Egyptian and Syrian religions had less dependence on the Magistrate than the Roman; and that the Egyptian, and Syrian (as he is pleased to call the Yewish) were the same, or of a like genius, is fuch an instance of his knowledge or ingenuity, as is not easily to be equalled. However, fince the noble writer hath made fuch use of the Satirist's relation, as to infinuate that the Ombites and Tentyrites acted in the common spirit and genius of the Egyptian theology, and became the model of intolerance to the Tewish and Christian world, it may not be amis to explain the true original of these religious squabbles, as Antiquity itself hath told the story: whereby it will appear, they had their birth from a very particular and occasional fetch of civil policy, which had no dependence on the general Superstition of the Pagan world.

The instance stands almost single in Antiquity. This would incline one to think that it arose from no common principle: and if we enquire into the nature of the Egyptian theology, it will appear impossible to come from that. For the common notion of local and tutelary deities, which prevents all intolerance, was originally, and peculiarly, Egyptian, as will be seen hereaster. It may then be asked how this mischief came about? I believe a passage in Diodorus Siculus, as quoted by Eusebius, will inform us. A certain king of Egypt, sinding some cities in his dominions apt to plot and cabal against him, contrived to introduce the distinct worship of a distinct animal into each city; as knowing that a reverence for their own, and a neglect of all others, would soon proceed to an Exclusion; and so bring on such a mutual aversion, as would never suffer them to unite in one common design. Thus, was

\* Vol. III. p. 41. Vol. I. † P. 82.

Kkk

there at first as little of a religious war on the principles of intolerance in this affair of the Ombites and Tentyrites, as in a drunken squabble between two trading Companies in the church of Rome about their patron saints. But Diodorus deserves to be heard in his own words: who, when he had delivered the sabulous accounts of the original of brute-worship, subjoins that which he supposed to be the true. "But some give another original of the worship of brute animals: for the several cities being formerly prone to rebellion, and to enter into conspiracies against Monarchical government, one of their Kings contrived to introduce into each city the worship of a different animal: so that while every one reverenced the Deity which itself held sacred, and despised what another had consecrated; they could hardly be brought to join cordially together in one common design, to the disturbance of the Government \*."

But to return: such then was the root and foundation of this sociability of Religion in the ancient world, so much envied by modern Pagans. The effect of their absurdaties, as Religions; and of their impersections, as Societies. Yet had universal custom made

\* Αίτίας કરે મુ લેંગ્રેલર φασί τιπς τῆς τῶν ἀλόγων ζώνν τιμῆς. τῷ γὰρ Φλήθυς τὸ Φαλαιὸν ἀΦιςαμίνο જુદા βασιλίως, મે, συμγροῦίθο εἰς τὸ μααίτι βασιλεύισθαι, ἐανοζσαί τινα λάφοςα σεθάσμαθα αὐτοῖς τὖν ركب، هدوهمكذين، ويدهد وتجوده مع لمه، هدفي دوردوية يتلمبلمانه ميوملونه، عير ور هدنج مديد جههما بولانالملونه nalagoridus, podirole iporosom direrlas márles el nar Aiyerles. Eufeb. Przp. Evzng. p. 321 ed. Rob. Steph. Plutarch gives us an account of another of these squabbles (if indeed) it was not the fame with Juvenal's) which happened much about the fame time, betweenthe Oxyrynchitm and the Cynopolitm; and confirms what is here faid of the original of this mutual hatred. - Alde di ruide rui denuis rua ni munueyus flacidius isopuis, rue dipuntius ααθαμαθόθα τῆ μὲν φύσει κύφες κὲ σερὸ, μεταθελὰν κὲ νεύλερσμὸν δξυβόστες δίθας, ἄμαχον δὶ κὲ δυσκάθεκ-ใक रंग्रे को को को कार्या है। एक उपमुख्या में प्रमुख्या में प्रशास्त्रकार है प्रशीदन केरीका करेगाई है। प्रतीवनमध्ये केर्दियाकि δισιδαμοία: δαφοξάς άπαίςυ σμόφασι» τῶν γὰς θαζίω & σερσίταξει ἄλλοις ἄλλα τιμῷν 🖒 σέδισθαι: δυσμινώς 25 ανολυμικώς άλλάλοις αγοσφορμένων, 25 τροφού δτέραν δτέρας αγοσύνσθαι αυφυκέτας, άμένοντας, ἀιὸ τοῖς οἰκιίοις ἔκαςοι 25 χαλετῶς ἀδικύμενος Φίρονλες, ἐλάνθανον τὰν τῶν θαςίων ἔχθεαις συνελκόμενοι. 2) συνεκτυλεμώμενα πρὸς ἀλλάχρες· μόνοι γὰς έτι νῦν Αλγυπίων Αυκοπολίται πρέβαθον Ισθίασει, ἐπελ. 2 λύεΦ, δι θιὸι τομίζοστιι οἰ δὶ 'ΟξυρυΓχίται καθ' ἡμᾶς τῶι Κυνοπολιτῶι τὸι ὀξύρυΓχοι ἰχθοι ἐσθιόιλοι, માંગ્લા કપ્રોપ્રેસરિકીશ મુટ્ટે કેઇક્સકીર, હેડ હેક્સિંગ મહીઇ/વસ્તુગર દેવ ક્ષે વર્ધવય મહીસદર્સકીક હોડ સાધ્યાપ્ત, હેપ્રેપ્રેસક વર્ષેષ્ઠ διίθηκαν κακώς, ης ύτιχου ύπο Pupalus κολαζόμενου διελέθησαν. Πιεί 1Σ. ης ΟΣ. 676, 677. Steph. ed. this

this principle of INTERCOMMUNITY, so essential to Paganism, that when their Philosophers and men of learning, on the spreading of Christianity, were become ashamed of the grossiness of Polytheism, and had so refined it by allegorical interpretations of their Mythology, as to make the feveral Pagan deities but the various attributes of the one only God; they still adhered to their darling principle (for Paganism still continued to be without a dogmatic theology, or formulary of faith) and contended, that this diversity was harmony, a musical discord, well pleasing to the God of heaven and earth. "It is but reasonable for us (says Symmachus\*) to sup-46 pose, that it is one and the same BEING whom all mankind " adores. We behold the fame stars; we live under the influence " of one common heaven; we are incompassed by the same uni-46 verse. What matters it, what device each man uses in his search " after truth? ONE road is plainly too narrow to lead us into the " initiation of fo GRAND A MYSTERY." Elegantly alluding to the fecret of the greater Mysteries, where, after the History of the Popular theogony had been delivered to the Initiated, the orphic Hymn, revealing the doctrine of the Unity, concluded the entertainment. "The great lord and governor of the earth (fays The-46 mistius) seems to be delighted with these diversities of Reli-"gions. It is his Will that the Syrians worship him one way, the "Greeks another, and the Egyptians yet another +." The reader fees that the foundation of this way of thinking, was the old principle of intercommunity in the worship of local tutelary Deities. But, what is remarkable, it appears even to this day, to be essential to Paganism. Bernier tells us, that the Gentiles of Hindoustan defended their religion against him in this manner: "They gave

<sup>\*</sup> Æquum est, quicquid omnes colunt unum putari; eadem spectamus astra; commune cœlum est; idem nos mundus involvit: Quid interest quá quisque prudentiá verum requirat? UNO itinere non potest perveniri ad tam GRANDE SECRETUM, Lib. x. Ep. 61. ad Valent. Theod. et Arcad. Augg.

<sup>†</sup> Ταύτη τόμιζε γάπτυσθαι τη ποικιλία του το παιτος Αρχιγέτιο άλλος Σύχος εθέλει θριστεύεις, άλλος Ελλοιας, άλλος Αίγυνθίος. Οταί. XII.

" me (says he) this pleasant answer; that they did not at all pre" tend that their Law was universal—that they did not in the least
" suspect that ours was false: it might, for what they knew, be
" a good Law for us, and that God may have made many dif" ferent roads to lead to heaven; but they would by no
" means hear that ours was general for the whole world, and theirs
" a mere fable and invention \*." Bernier indeed speaks of this
as a peculiar whimsey, which had entered the head of his Brachman.
But had he been as conversant in history and Antiquity, as he was
in modern philosophy, he would have known that this was a principle which accompanied Paganism through all its stages.

Let us now see the nature and genius of those Religions which were founded, as we say, in TRUE REVELATION. The first is the JEWISH; in which was taught the belief of one God, the Maker and Governor of all things, in contradistinction to all the false gods of the Gentiles: This necessarily introduced a DOGMATIC THEOLOGY. So that the followers of this Religion, if they believed it true, in the sense it was delivered to them, must needs believe all others to be false. But it being instituted only for themselves, they had, directly, no further to do with that falshood, than to guard themselves against the contagion of it, by holding no fellowship or communion with the Gentiles.

Yet so strong was this general prejudice of INTERCOMMUNITY, that all the provisions of the Law could not keep this brutal people from running into the idolatries of the Nations: For their frequent defections, till after the Babylonian Captivity, were no other than the joining foreign Worship to the Worship of the God of Hrael.

After this Religion, comes the Christian, which taught the belief of the same God, the supreme Cause of all things: and being a Revelation, like the other, from Heaven, must needs be built upon that other; or at least on the supposition of its truth. And, as this latter was not national, like the other, but given to

all mankind. For that reason, but especially for some others, which will be fully confidered in their place, it had a MORE COM-PLETE system of dogmatick theology. The consequence of this was, that its followers must not only think Paganism false, and Judaism abolished, and so refuse all fellowship and communion with both; but must endeavour to propagate their Religion throughout the world, on the destruction of all the rest. And their dogmatic theology teaching them that TRUTH (and not UTILITY \*, as the Pagans, who had only public Rites and Ceremonies, supposed) was the end of Religion; it was no wonder, their aversion to falfbrod should be proportionably increased. And so far all was right. But this aversion, cherished by piety, unhappily produced a blind, ungovernable zeal; which, when arguments failed, hurried them on to all the unlawful use of force and compulsion. Hence the evils of PERSECUTION, and the violation of the laws of humanity, in a fond passion for propagating the Law of GoD +.

This is a true representation of the state of things, both in the Pagan, and in the Believing world. To give it the utmost evidence, we will next consider the reception true Religion met with amongst idolaters.

The Pagan world having early imbibed this inveterate prejudice concerning intercommunity of worship, men were but too much accustomed to new Revelations, when the Jewish appeared, not to acknowledge its superior pretences. Accordingly we find by the history of this People, that it was esteemed a true one by its neighbours. And therefore they proceeded, in their usual way, to join it, on occasion, to their own: as those did, whom the king of Assyria sent into the cities of Israel in the place of the ten Tribes-Whereby it happened (so great was the influence of this Principle) that in the same time and country, the Jews of Jerusalem

<sup>\*</sup> For this the reader may see Dion. Harlicarnasseus's discourse of the religion which Romulus introduced in his republic; and for his reason, see Book III. and IV.

<sup>†</sup> See note [KK], at the end of this Book.

Book II.

added the Pagan idolatries to their Religion; while the Pagans of Samaria added the Jewish religion to their idolatries.

But when this people of God, in consequence of having their dogmatic Theology more carefully inculcated to them after their return from the Captivity, became rigid in pretending not only that their Religion was true, but the only true one; then it was, that they began to be treated by their Neighbours, and afterwards by the Greeks and Romans, with the utmost hatred and contempt for this their inhumanity and unsociable temper. To this cause alone we are to ascribe all that spleen and rancour which appears in the histories of these latter Nations, concerning them. Celsus fairly reveals what lay at bottom, and speaks out, for them all: "If the Jews, on these accounts, adhere to their own Law, 46 it is not for that, they are to blame: I rather blame those who " forsake their own country religion to embrace the Jewish. But 46 if these People give themselves airs of sublimer wisdom than the 46 rest of the world, and on that score refuse all communion with it, 46 as not equally pure;—I must tell them that it is not to be believed "that they are more dear, or agreeable to God, than other na-"tions "." Hence, amongst the Pagans, the Hebrew People came to be distinguished from all others by the name of GENUS HOMINUM INVISUM DEIS+, and with good reason 1.

This was the reception the Jews met with in the world: but not pretending to obtrude their Religion on the rest of mankind, as it was given properly to the Posterity of Abraham, they yet, for the most part, escaped persecution.

When CHRISTIANITY arose, though on the foundation of Judaism, it was at first received with great complacency by the Pagan world. For they were such utter strangers to the idea of one Re-

Ei plo के प्रवास प्रवास कार्कार्य कार्कार्य कार्कार्य है विवास को लिया किया किया है मानिस की मानिस के कार्य के unladitionles tà opiteen, ut tà lesales mesouvelier el 8 de ti orpéteer cisotes orquirents te, ut rin ander neueriar en if iou nabagir anorripoilus — è pir èt cidenpuir mara ry big n' rippertar διαφέρως το τών άλλων τώτως εἰκός. Orig. cont. Celfum, l. v. p. 259.

<sup>†</sup> Tacit, Hist. I. v.

<sup>1</sup> See note \*, p. 441.

ligion's being built, or dependent on another, that it was a long time before they knew this connection between them. Even Celfus himself, with all his sufficiency, saw so little how this matter stood, that he was not satisfied whether the Jews and Christians worshiped the same God; --- was sometimes inclined to think they did not. This ignorance, which the propagators of our Religion were not too forward to remove \*, for fear of hindering the progress of the Gospel, prevented the prejudice which the Pagans had to Judaisin, from indisposing them to Christianity. So that the Gospel was favourably heard. And the superior evidence, with which it was inforced, inclined men, long habituated to pretended Revelations, to receive it into the number of the Established. Accordingly we find one Roman emperor introducing it amongst his closet Religious+; and another proposing to the Senate 1, to give it a more public entertainment §. But when it was found to carry its pretentions higher ||, and to claim, like the Tewish, the title of the ONLY TRUE ONE, then it was that it began to incur the same hatred and contempt with the Jewish. But when it went still further, and urged a necessity for all men to forsake their national Religions, and embrace the Gospel, this so shocked \*\* the Pagans, that it foon brought upon itself the bloody storms which followed. Thus you have the true origin of persecution for Religion (though not of the intolerant principle, as we shall see before we come to the end of this section). A persecution not committed, but undergone, by the Christian Church.

Hence we see how it happened, that such good Emperors as Trajan and M. Antonine came to be found in the first rank of

<sup>\*</sup> See note [LL], at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> Alexander Severus. Lampridii, c. 29.

<sup>†</sup> Tiberius retulit ad fenatum ut INTER CETERA SACRA reciperetur. Hier. See note [MM], at the end of this Book.

<sup>§</sup> See note [NN], at the end of this Book.

<sup>|</sup> See note [OO], at the end of this Book.

<sup>\*\*</sup> See note [PP], at the end of this Book.

persecutors. A difficulty that hath very much embarrassed the enquirers into ecclesiastical antiquity; and given a handle to the Deists, who empoison every thing, of pretending to suspect that there must be something very much amiss in primitive Christianity, while fuch wife magistrates could become its persecutors. But now the reason is manifest \*: the Christian pretences overthrew a fundamental principle of Paganism, which they thought founded in nature; namely, the friendly intercommunity of worship. And thus the famous passage of Pliny the younger becomes in-"For I did not in the least hesitate, but that whatever telligible. 66 should appear on confession, to be their faith, yet that their fro-44 wardness and inflexible obstinacy would certainly deserve punish-"ment +." What was this inflexible obstinacy? It could not confift in professing a new Religion: that was a thing common enough. It was the refusing all communion with Paganism; refusing to throw a grain of incense on their altars. For we must not think, as is commonly imagined, that this was at first enforced by the Magistrate to make them renounce their Religion: but only to give a test of its social and bospitable temper. It was indeed, and rightly, understood by the Christians to be a renouncing of their Religion; and so, accordingly, abstained from. The misfortune was, that the Pagans did not consider this inflexibility as a mere error, but as an immorality likewise. The unsociable, uncommunicable temper, in matters of religious worship, was esteemed by the best of them, as a hatred and averfion to mankind. Tacitus, speaking of the burning of Rome: "Haud perinde in crimine incendii quam 66 ODIO HUMANI GENERIS convicti sunt I [Christiani]." Convicted, he fays, of bate to all mankind. But how? The confession of the Pagans themselves, concerning the purity of the Christian morals, shews this could be no other than a conviction of their rejecting all

<sup>\*</sup> See note [QQ], at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> Neque enim dubitabam, qualceunque effet quod faterentur, certe, pertinaciam et inflexibilem obstinationem debere puniri. Lib. x. Ep. 97.

<sup>1</sup> Ann. xy. Sed. 44.

intercommunity of Worship; which, so great was their prejudice, they thought could proceed from nothing but bate to mankind. The like character the same historian gives of the Jews: "Apud " ipfos FIDES OBSTINATA, fed adversus omnes alios HOSTILE "ODIUM \*." Now the Jews and Christians had nothing in common but this unsociable and uncommunicable temper in religious matters. this obstinata sides which gave so much offence to Paganism. We are not to imagine, these excellent Pagan moralists so blind as not to see all the merit of a firm and fixed resolution of keeping a good conscience. They did see and own it, as appears by the famous " Justum et tenacem propositi virum," &c. of one of their moral poets. But, unluckily for truth, they did not fee the pervicacia et inflexibilis obstinatio of the Christians in that light. Though it was nothing more than fuch a fixed refolution, as one who most severely cenfured them for it, the good emperor Marcus Antoninus, fairly confesses. In his book of Meditations, speaking of a wise man's readiness to die, he says, "He should be so prepared, that his readiness " may be seen to be the effect of a well-weighed judgement, not of " MERE OBSTINACY, like that of the Christians +." This is a very heavy charge on the primitive Martyrs. But he himself removes it in his Constitution to the Community of Afia, given us by Eusebius. "I know, fays he, the Gods are watchful to discover such fort of " men. For it is much more fit that they themselves should punish " those who refuse to worship them, than that we should " interfere in it 1." Why then was it called mere obstinacy? The reason is seen above: universal prejudice had made men regard a refusal of this intercommunity as the most brutal of all dissociability. And the emperor Julian, who understood this matter the best of any, fairly owns, that the Jews and Christians brought the exe-

<sup>\*</sup> See note [RR], at the end of this Book.

<sup>+</sup> See note [SS], at the end of this Book.

Τ Έγω με οίδ' ότι η τους διούς επιμελές του μα λαιθάσειο τως τουτης πολέ γιο μαλλου δείδου πολάσαιο αυτώς με βυλομένες αυτώς προσκειού η έμειζε. Επίεδι. Εκεί. Hit. l. iv. c. 13.

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cration of the world upon them by their aversion to the Gods of Paganism, and their refusal of all communication with them \*.

On this occasion, it may not be improper, once for all, to expose the ignorance and malice of those, whom the French call PHILOSOPHERS, and we English, FREE-THINKERS; who, with no more knowledge of Antiquity, than what the modern sense of a few Latin and Greek words could afford them, have his odium bumani generis perpetually in their mouths, to difgrace the chosen People of God, or rather the Author of their Religion. Their favorite author, Tacitus himself, by extending the abuse, discountenances it. He makes this odium humani generis the characteristic both of Tews and Christians; and by so doing, shews us, in what it confisted. Nor do the Ancients in general, by affixing it as the common brand to these two inhospitable Religions, contribute to this calumny, any otherwise than by the incapacity of our Philosophers to understand them. Diodorus Siculus, speaking + of Antiochus's profanation of the Yewish Temple, and his contemptuous destruction of the Sacred Books, applauds the Tyrant's exploits, as those Books contained τα μισόξενα νέμιμα, Laws, which bore hate and enmity to all the rest of Mankind. This pretended odium humani generis, we find then, was not any thing in the personal temper of the Jews, but in the nature and genius of their LAW. These Laws are extant and lie now before us; and we see, the only bate they contain is the bate of Idols. With regard to the race of Mankind, nothing can be more endearing than the Mosaic account of their common original; nothing more benign or falutary than the legal directions to the Jews concerning their treatment of all, out of the COVENANT. Whatever there might be of this edious temper fairly ascribed to the Jews, by our Philosophers, it received no counte-

<sup>\* &#</sup>x27;Αλλά τὸ, ὁ προσαυτάσεις θεοῖς ἐτίρος' ὁ δὸ μέγα τῆς πυρὶ τὸ Θεόν φασι λαδιλῆς' Θεός γὰρ ξηλοϊάς φασι——ἄφιῖι τῶτοι τὸι λῦρου, κỳ μὰ τυλικαύταν ἰφ' ὑμῶς αὐτὸς ἔλαιῖι βλασφαμίαν. Apud' Cyrill. cont. Jul. 1. v.

<sup>+</sup> Eclog. I. ex Diod. Sic. I. 31.

nance from the Law, and is expressly condemned by the Almighty Author of it, when it betrayed itself amongst certain corrupt and apostate members of that Nation. These, indeed, the Prophet Isaiah describes, as saying to all others,—Stand by thyself, come not near me; for I am bolier than thou. And lest this should be mistaken for the fruits of the unbospitable genius of the Law, he takes care to inform us that these men were the rankest and most abandoned Apostates.—A rebellious People who sucrifice in gardens, and burn incense upon Altars of Brick—who remain amongst the graves, and lodge in the monuments, which cat swine's sless, &c +. that is, a People thoroughly paganized.

Thus have I endeavoured to explain the true origin of that universal Toleration (as far as Religion influenced it) under Paganism; and the accidental causes of its violation under Christianity. The account will be further useful to many considerable purposes, as will be seen hereaster. At present I shall only take notice how well it obviates one specious objection against Christianity. "If this Religion, say the Deists, were accompanied with such illustrious and extraordinary marks of truth, as is pretended; how happened it, that its truth was not seen by more of the best and wisest of those times? And if it were seen (as it certainly was), how could they continue Pagans?" The answer is easy. The conviction of the truth of a new Religion was not deemed a sufficient reason, by men, overrun with the general prejudice of INTERCOMMUNITY, to quit their old ones.

The case indeed was different in a Jew, who held none of this intercommunity. If such a one owned the truth of Christianity, he must needs embrace it. We conclude, therefore, that the passage of Josephus (who was as much a Jew as the Religion of Moses could make him) which acknowledges, Jesus to be THE CHRIST 1,

<sup>\*</sup> Isai. c. lxv. ver. 5. † Ver. 2, 3, 4.

<sup>3 —</sup> Ἰποῦς, σοφὸς ἀνέρ' τίγο ἸΛιδρα αὐτὸν λίγοιν χράν ἢν γὰρ παραδίζου ἄγουν πουεθές. ΔιδάσταλΦ ἀιδρόπων, τῶν ἡδοῦ τάλτθὰ διχυμίνων.—Ο ΧΡΙΣΤΟΣ ΟΥΤΌΣ ΗΝ.—Ἐφάνα γὰρ αὐτῶς τρίταν ἄχων ἡμίραν πάλιν ζῶν τῶν θιίκεν προφείῶν ταῦτα, κỳ ἄλλα μυρία θαυμάσια περὶ αἰτῶ εἰρανότων. Απτία, xviii. 3. 3.

is a rank forgery, and a very stupid one too \*. But it hath been said, that Josephus was a fewish Convert. If so, it must be ta Judaism, and not from it. For where he affirms, against Apion, that there ought to be but one Temple for one God +, he speaks the very spirit of the Law.

We have now seen the motives the civil Magistrate had to tolerate:——Of what nature that toleration was:——And how easily it was brought about.

But then, lest the People should abuse this right of worshipping according to their own will, to the detriment of the State, in private and clandestine conventicles (which right the Magistrate supported for the civil benefit of it), he took care that such worship should have the public approbation and allowance, before it was received on the footing of a tolerated Religion. So, by the laws of ATHENS, no firange God, nor foreign Worship was permitted, till. approved and licensed by the Court of AREOPAGUS. This is the reason why St. Paul, who was regarded as the bringer in of foreign. Gods, SENON DAIMONION, was had up to that Tribunal. Not as a criminal 1, but rather as a public benefactor, who had a new Worship to propose to a people, religious above all others, OE ΔΕΙΣΙΔΑΙΜΟΝΕΣΤΕΡΟΙ; most addicted, as Strabo tells us, to: the recognition of foreign Worship &; and "of all the Greeks, as "Julian observes, most devoted to Religion, and most hospitable " to strangers ||." Tully \*\* makes Solon the founder of this Court. But the Arundel marbles, and Plutarch in his life of that Lawgiver ++, contradict this opinion; and the latter, in support of his

<sup>\*</sup> See a further proof of it, vol. II. Book V. sect. 4. + Lib. II.

I See note [TT], at the end of this Book.

<sup>5 &#</sup>x27;Abracio. ' હॅστες જાણે જો હૈλλα φιλιξειώνεις διαβίλυσει, હંτυ મું. જાણે. જો; ઉર્લ્યુ: જાદેરેલે જુલેટ જાણે દેશાયાલ isput જાલ્ફારેફિક્સિંગ. Geogr. l. x.

<sup>\*\*</sup> De Officiis, lib. i. c. 22.

<sup>††</sup> Vitæ parall vol. i. p. 194. edit. Bryan.

own, quotes a law of Solon's, which makes mention of the Areopagus as already existing. The difficulty is how to reconcile these accounts. I imagine this might be the case: Solon, we know, was employed by the Athenians to new-model their Commonwealth, by reforming the ill Constitutions, and supplying such as were defective. So that in the number of his regulations, this might be one; The adding, to the Court of Areopagus, the peculiar jurifdiction in question; as of great moment to public utility. And having thus enlarged and ennobled its Jurisdiction, he was afterwards regarded as its founder. A passage in Æschylus seems, at first sight indeed, not to favour this opinion; but to infinuate, that this Jurisdiction was coëval with the Court. In the fifth act of his Eumenides, he makes the worship of the Furies, or the venerable Goddesses, as they were called, to be received and recognized in Athens, by a decree of Minerva, as head of the college of Areopagus, which the poet feigns she had just then instituted. But this plainly appears to have been contrived only for the fake of a poetical embellishment: and Æschylus seems to employ one circumstance in this scene, designedly to inform us of the order of time, in which the Court received its two different jurisdictions. It is, where he makes the criminal cause of Orestes, the first which was judged at that Tribunal; and the religious one, of the reception of the Eumenides, but the second. However this be, the Areopagus was, by far, the most formidable judicature in the republic. And it is observable, that Aristophanes, who spares neither the fleets, the armies, the Courts of justice, the person of the supreme Magistrate, the Asiemblies of the people, or the Temples of the Gods themselves, does not dare to hazard the least injurious reflection on that venerable body.

The ROMANS had a law to the same purpose; which, as often as it was violated, was publicly vindicated by the authority of the State: as appears from the words of Posthumius in Livy, quoted in the last section: "Quoties how patrum avorumque ætate negotium

" est magistratibus datum, ut sacra externa sieri vetarent, sacrisicu-" los vatesque foro, circo, urbe prohiberent, vaticinos libros con-" quirerent \*?" &c. Which shews their care to have all tolerated religions under the Magistrate's inspection. And, if I am not much mistaken, Tully, in his Books of Larvs, the substance of which is taken from the Twelve tables, gives us that very law; whereby, as we faid, all foreign and clandestine worship, unauthorized by the civil magistrate, was forbid. SEPARATIM NEMO HABESSIT DEOS: NEVE NOVOS, NEVE ADVENAS, NISI PUBLICE ADSCITOS, PRIVATIM COLUNTO +. "No man shall worship the 44 Gods clandestinely, or have them separately to himself: nor " shall any new or foreign God be worshipped by particulars, till " fuch God hath been legally approved of, and tolerated by the " magistrate." The comment, as concise, and consequently as obscure as the text, follows in these words: Suosque Deos, AUT NOVOS, AUT ALIENIGENAS COLI, CONFUSIONEM HABET RELI-GIONUM, ET IGNOTAS CEREMONIAS: NON A SACERDOTIBUS, NON A PATRIBUS ACCEPTOS DEOS, ITA PLACERET COLI, SI HUIC LÉGI PARUERANT IPSI 1. "For each man to have his Gods in pecu-46 liar, whether new or ftranger Gods, without public allowance, "tends to defeat and confound all religion, and introduce clan-" destine worship: and had the pricsts and our forefathers had a 44 due regard to this law, we should never have approved of that 46 kind of worship which we now pay to the Gods they introduced " amongst us."

But notwithstanding all this, Mr. Bayle, from the words above quoted from the speech of Posthumius in Livy, would persuade us §, that the Romans did not admit or tolerate foreign worship; and that the care of the Magistrate, there taken notice of by the Consul,

Lib. xxxix. Hif.

<sup>†</sup> See note [UU], at the end of this Book.

<sup>#</sup> See note [XX], at the end of this Book.

<sup>§</sup> Pens. div. c. 221.

was to prohibit all religions, but the established: an opinion which the whole Roman hittory discredits; where we find the Magistrate, from time to time, tolerated all foreign religions with the utmost facility. The care then, which Posthumius meant, was surely that of preventing all clandestine worship, unlicensed by the Magistrate: This appears even from that other passage brought by Mr B. from Livy to support his affertion: "Nec corpora modo 44 affecta tabo, sed animos quoque multiplex religio et pleraque ex-"terna invasit, novos ritus sacrificando, vaticinando inferentibus in " domos, quibus quæstui sunt capti superstitione animi \*:" But more particularly from the very affair, Posthumius was here engaged in. At this juncture, the State was above measure exasperated by the monstrous enormities committed in the clandestine rites of Bacchus: yet it is observable, that, in the edict passed in the very height of their refentment, the right of toleration was preferved inviolate: the Decree of the Senate forbidding " any cele-" bration of the Bacchanals either in Rome or Italy. But that if " any one should be possessed with a belief that this fort of rite was " due by custom, and necessary; and that he could not omit the " celebration of it without irreligion and impiety, he should lay " his case before the city Pretor; the Pretor should consult the "Senate, when there was not less than an hundred in council, to "know if they approved of it. These cautions observed, the rites " might be celebrated, provided that not more than five affisted at "the facrifice, that they had no common purse, no priest, nor a mas-" ter of the solemnities +."

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. iv. Hia.

<sup>† —</sup> Ne qua Bacchanalia Romz, neve in Italia essent. Si quis tale sacrum solenne et necessarium duceret, nec sine religione et piaculo se id omittere posse apud Przetorem urbanum profiteretur; Przetor senatum consuleret, si ei permissum esset, quum in senatu centum non minus essent, ita id sacrum saceret, dum ne plus quinque sacrificio interessent, neu qua pecunia communis, neu quis magister sacrorum, aut sacerdos esset. Lib. xxxix.

As here, the Magistrate's care, in expelling foreign religions, was to prevent clandestine worship amongst the tolerated; so at other times, the same care was employed in preventing those foreign religions from mixing with the established, as we are informed by Valerius Maximus\*. But neither in that case, nor in this, was the liberty of particulars, to worship as they thought fit, at all infringed, or impaired.

Dionysius of Halicarnassus plainly distinguishes between their established and tolerated religions. The passage is curious; and will not only serve to confute Mr. B.'s notion, but will afford us an opportunity of explaining what is further necessary to clear up this embarrassed subject. The words of this diligent enquirer into the Roman Constitution are these: "What, above all things, raised 46 my admiration was, that, notwithstanding the vast multitudes 44 which throng from all parts to Rome, who must there, conse-44 quently, worship their own country Gods, according to their " country rites; yet the city never adopted any of these foreign "worships into the PUBLIC religion; as hath been the custom for "many other states to do +." Whence it appears, 1. That all strangers might freely worship in Rome according to their own way; the being debarred of that liberty, was not deemed, by him, a conceivable case: That such particulars as were so disposed, might join with them; and that, besides these tolerated religions, there was one public, and established, which admitted of no foreign mix-2. We are not to understand the author as if his wonder was caused by the Romans having an established religion distinct from the tolerated; but, for that they mixed, or introduced into the established few or no foreign rites; which was the custom in the cities of Greece: for these are the other states, which the historian hints at. But modern writers not adverting to this, when

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. i. c. 3.

<sup>†</sup> Και δ σάνλων μάλιτα την νετθαύματα, καί τις μυρών όσων είς την σύλιν εσεληλυθέτων εθνών, εξε σωλλή ἀνάγκη σύδειν της σαθείνς θεύς τοῦς εξευδίν εφέμεις, εδικός είς ζηλον ελάλυθε τῶν ξενικῶν ἐπίπαδυμάτων ἡ σεόλις δημοσία, δ σολλοῖς ἦδη συνίδη σαθείν. Αntiq. lib. [[.

they read of the Roman practice of admitting no foreign worship into their public religion, concluded wrongly, that they allowed no toleration: and when they read of the Greek practice of naturalizing foreign religions, by adopting them into their public worship, concluded, as wrongly, that they had no establishments. words Η ΠΟΛΙΣ ΔΗΜΟΣΙΑ, are remarkable: He does not fay, the city-rejected foreign worship, but, that it admitted not of it PUB-LICLY; that is, did not bring it into the public religion of the State. For, as we observed before, Paganism had two parts, the one public, the other private: the State, as such, was the subject of the one; and Particulars, as such, of the other. But they admitted of foreign rites privately; that is, allowed particulars to use them, after the Magistrate's licence had been obtained for that purpose. So that the established religion, every where, related to the public part of Paganism; and the tolerated, to the private part. 4. The historian observes, that, in this conduct, Rome differed from many other cities, meaning the Grecian. And indeed, it was less a wonder than he seems to make it: For Rome, rising on her own foundation, independent on, and unrelated to any other State, and early possessed with the high enthusiasm of distinction and empire, would naturally esteem her tutelary Gods as her own peculiar; and therefore would reject all foreign mixtures. On the contrary, the Grecian States, related to, and dependent on one another, would more easily admit of an association and combination amongst their national Deities.

Such was the nature of TOLERATION in the Pagan world; and this the wife provision of ancient Policy, while Civil liberty could keep its own. But when now Government began to degenerate, and ALL, preposterously to submit to the will of one; when the Magistrate came to have a good, distinct from that of the People; and civil peace was estimated, not by the blessings it produced, but by the degree of subjection it was able to inslict; then the sa-shionable scheme of Politics began to turn solely on the mainte-

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nance of a Tyrant's power: and He having observed, that, though the toleration of religion, under the regulations above described, was evidently for the advantage of Society; yet, as those regulations were too apt to be neglected, he thought it best, by an absolute intolerance, and a thorough uniformity, to cut off all occasions and opportunities of mischief to himself, from private conventicles and conventions.

Agreeably to this fystem of power, we find Mæcenas, in Dion Cassius\*, distuading Augustus from allowing any toleration of religion at all: as, an indulgence in this matter, would indispose men towards the Magistrate, and make them less fond of the civil and religious Constitutions of their country; from whence factions, and consederacies against the State would unavoidably arise. He concludes his advice against toleration in these remarkable words: Assertion and the against toleration in these remarkable words: agreeing with arbitrary power." And Tacitus informs us +, the usurper sollowed it. Thus, we see, that the samous declaration of, one king and one religion, is not a new maxim, for which we are indebted to French Politics.

So noble an original had the principle of INTOLERANCE: and fo iniquitous are the adversaries of our holy religion, to throw it upon the *Christian Faith*; when it appears to have been the pure offspring of civil Tyranny; how well soever it may have been afterwards nursed and fondled by some Fathers of the Church.

Thus have I attempted to give a plain account of the general methods used by ancient Policy to inculcate and support Religion. Were I to speak, as I once intended, of those which particular Lawgivers and Magistrates employed for the use of their proper

<sup>\*</sup> Lib. Hist. 52.

<sup>+</sup> Actum et de sacris Ægyptiis Judaicisque pellendis: factumque patrum consultum, ut quatuor millia libertini generis ea superstitione insecta, quis idonea ætas, in insulam Sardiniam veherentur, coercendis illie latrociniis, et si ob gravitatem cœli interissent, vile damnum: ceteri cederent Italia, nisi, certam ante diem profanos ritus exuissent. Tac. Annal. 1. 11. c. 85.

Societies, I should have it in my power to throw great light upon the argument. But this, though the most curious part of all, must be omitted at present, by reason of its length. In the mean time, I prefume, more than enough hath been faid, even in those places which only shew the Legislator's care for religion in general, to prove the truth of the propolition, That, in the opinion of ancient policy, the doctrine of a future flate of rewards and punishments was indispensably useful to civil Society: For having shewn that the doctrine of a future state was an inseparable part of Pagan religion, and indeed the fole support of it, the proving their care for religion in general, proves their care for this doctrine in particular. Where, it is worth observing, that, though the ancient Lawgivers deviated from truth, and differed from one another, even in the most important points, concerning property, marriage, dominion, &c. yet they unanimously agreed in owning the use, and propagating the belief of a future state of rewards and punishments: And what stronger proof would any one desire of the necessity of that doctrine to Religion and Society?

We now see the close connection between Civil government and Religion. The following observation will still further explain the necessity of this union.

That benevolent spirit of Antiquity, described above, which set their Heroes upon polishing the barbarous manners of their sellow-creatures, and imparting to them the blessings of CIVIL LIFE, as divine as it appears, hath yet been far exceeded by the charity of these later ages, which sends missionaries into the surthest regions of the east and west, with the inestimable blessing of the glad tidings of the Gospel. But nothing is matter of more grief to serious men than the constant ill success of so charitable an undertaking. Something sure must have been greatly amiss, to deseat a design which all nature conspires to advance. This would be accounted for. Catholic (as they call themselves) and Protestant Missionaries go promiscuously to either India. The Catholics have laboured

most in countries civilized; but, giving a commentitious system for the gospel of Christ, it is no wonder the Pagans should not be greatly disposed to change old fables for new. And though the protestant Missionaries carry the genuine Gospel with them into America, yet they preach it to Savages, with no better fuccefs. The reason seems to be because they are Savages, without Government or Laws; and confequently of very rude, uncultivated minds. Now Christianity, plain and simple as it is, and sitted in its nature for what it was defigned by its Author, requires an intellect above that of a mere Savage to understand \*. Something then must be previous to it. And what is that fomething but CIVIL SOCIETY? This is not at all to its dishonour. And if it hath sometimes happened, through the indefatigable labours of these Missionaries, both of the one and the other Communion, that numbers of favage converts have been made, they could never long preserve, or propagate amongst their tribes, the Christianity they had been taught: but their successors have always found the work was to begin anew, and in a little time, nothing left of the others labours to advance upon. And if what we have faid in this book be true, That religion cannot long subfift without the aid of civil government, we are not to wonder at it: for, from hence, we conclude, they began at the wrong end; and that to make our holy religion rightly understood, much more to propagate and perpetuate it, they should first have taught these Savages the arts of life: from whence (besides the benefit of that previous knowledge abovementioned) would have refulted this further advantage, that men so sensibly obliged, would have given a more favourable attention to their benefactors. As it is, I am afraid, these Savages observing in the Missionaries (and they have fense enough to observe that the Europeans keep many things from them which it would be useful for them to know) a. total difregard of their temporal concerns, would be hardly brought to think the matters pressed upon them of much importance, or

<sup>\*</sup> See note [YY] at the end of this Book.

the teachers greatly in earnest. The civilizing a barbarous people is in itself a work of such exalted charity, that to see it neglected, when a far nobler end than the arts of life may be procured by it, is matter of the utmost astonishment\*. But it is partly owing to this, that many of both missions have had too much of that fanaticism in their temper, which disposes men to an utter contempt of worldly things: they are therefore fo far from preaching up the advantages of Society, and recommending civil Manners, that they are more disposed to throw aside their own; and have recourse tothe dried skins and parched corn of the Savages. While others of them, of a colder turn, and lower form of fuperstition, having taken it into their heads, that the vices of improved life would more indispose the Indians to the precepts of the Gospel, than their present brutality incapacitates them from comprehending the doctrines of it, have concluded it best, upon the whole, to keep their eyes shut to the advantages of civil life +. But without doubt so fatal a conduct arises chiefly from the false and inhumane policy of the European Colonies, a policy common to every fect and profession, which makes them do all in their power to keep the natives in a favage state; as suspecting that the neighbourhood of a civifized people would be too unfriendly to their private interests. However, this policy, as bad as it is, has yet something less: diabolical in it than that other part of Colony-Religion, which robs the opposite Continent of so many thousands of our species, for a yearly facrifice to their great idol, Mammon, THE God of GAIN. These Colonists, indeed, pretend to observe a kind of aversion in the savages to a civilized State. And it is no wonderif they should not be very forward to imitate the manners of their oppressors. But this is not the natural condition of things. Barbarians are never backward to partake of those advantages of civillife which they understand; except where ill usage has given them.

<sup>\*</sup> See note [ZZ] at the end of this Book.

<sup>†</sup> See note [AAA] at the end of this Book,.

an abhorrence for their Instructors. The Goths and Vandals in Europe, together with the other benefits of their Conquests, joy-fully embraced the Christian Faith: And the Turks in Asia, and other clans of Tartars in China, readily received Religion and Civility from the conquered nations. On the whole, however, I dare venture to foretel, that no great good will ever come of these Missions, till the two projects of civilizing and saving be joined in one.

As the matter stands at present, the forests of North and South America are good for little but to be made nurseries for Philosophers and Free-thinkers. The inhabitants, by following simple nature, are already in possession of that blessing, which these illustrious Instructors so vainly wished for at home; namely the removal of all religious prejudices from the education of their children. A learned voyager, who has been lately on a mathematical mission to the Equator, describes this happy and envied condition in very emphatic terms; which the reader may find below \*. What crops of Free-thinking may not be expected from so happy a climate! But our Philosophers perhaps, on resection,

\*-J'ai cru reconnoître dans tous [les Indiens Américains, quoique différentes en langues, mœurs, et coûtumes) un même fonds de charactère. L'insensibilité en fait le base. Je laisse à décider si on la doit honorer du nom d'apathie; ou l'avilir par celui de stupidité. Elle naît sans doute du petit nombre de leurs idées, qui ne s'étend pas au delà de leurs besoins. Gloutons jusqu'à la voracité, quand ils ont de quoi se satisfaire; sobres, quand la necessité les y oblige, jusqu'à se passer de tout, sans paroître rien desirer; pufillanimes et poltrons à l'excès, si l'ivresse ne les transporte pas; ennemis du travail, indifférens à tout motif de gloire, d'honneur, ou de reconnoissance; uniquement occupés de l'objet présent, et toujours déterminés par lui; sans inquiétude pour l'avenir ; incapables de prévoyance et de réflexion ; se livrant, quand rien ne les gêne, à une joie puerile, qu'ils manifestent par des sauts et des éclats de rire immodérés, sans objet et sans dessein; ils passent leur vie sans penser, et ils vieillissent saus sortir de l'enfance, dont ils conservent tous les défauts---on ne peut voir sans humiliation combien l'homme abandonné à la simple nature, privé d'éducation et de societé, dissere peu de la bête. Relation d'un voyage dans l'Amerique meridionale, par M. de la Condamine, p. 51, et seq.

may think their favourite maxim here pushed a little too far. However, this freedom from religious prejudices, in the purity of its state here, may be of use, in disposing our Philosophers to review their favourite maxim; and to consider whether they be well founded, in recommending it in that extent in which it is here practifed. It is true, a superstitious education is productive of great evils. But what then? If, through these prejudices, the Omaguas of the southern continent think it piety, at the birth of their children, to flatten their heads, like a cheefe, between two boards, that their faces may refemble their Deity, the full moon; Should the ridicule of this custom make it thought absurd in us, to bring up our children in the love of justice, of purity, and benevolence, that they may resemble the God of the Christians, whom we adore? Our Philosophers will fay, So far they are not unwilling to go. What they would have is, that the infant-mind be kept free from the deformed impressions of Positive Religion. But they must pardon us if we think, that in such minds, precepts are best enforced by example; and that the best example is that of the Deity in his dispensations to mankind, as delivered by positive religion.

Was the full definition of man, a GOOD PHILOSOPHER, and his only business, speculative truth, something might be said in favour of preserving his mind, a rasa tabula, till he was himself able to judge what was sit to be written on it. But as he was sent into the world to make a GOOD CITIZEN, in the observance of all the relations of civil, social, and domestic life; as he was born for practice and not for speculation; I should think that virtues, so necessary for the discharge of those relations, could not be infinuated too soon, or impressed too frequently; even though the consequence might happen to be, the acquiring an obstinate and unconquerable prejudice in favour of Religion.

On the whole, then, we see, that the ancient Lawgivers were as much superior to the modern Missionaries in the execution, as These are, to Them in the design. Those Sages saw plainly that religion

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religion and civil policy were inseparable; and therefore they always taught them together. The experience of all ages justified their conduct; and the truth, on which they acted, gives us the most transcendent idea of Divine goodness, which hath so closely united our temporal to our spiritual happiness. The sum of all is this, that whoever would secure Civil Government, must support it by the means of Religion; and whoever would propagate Religion, must perpetuate it by the means of Civil Government.

#### NOTES on the Continuation of BOOK II.

P. 409. THESE were the confiderations, doubtless, which induced [FF] The excellent author De Pesprit des loix to say, "Il est aisé de regler par des loix ce qu'on doit aux autres; il est difficile d'y comprendre tout ce qu'on se doit à soi-meme." Vol. 1. p. 167. 4to.

P. 430. [GG? See Book IV.—Nay, so fond were they of this notion of local tutelary Deities, that they degraded even JUPITER himself, their Father of gods and men, into one of them, as appears by his several appellations of Jupiter Ammon, Olympicus, Capitolinus, etc. This deceived Dr. Bentley, who finding Jupiter, in the popular theology, to be a local Deity, concluded him not to be one but many. So that in the last edition of his excellent Remarks on that foolish book, called A discourse of free-thinking, he reproves the translator of Lucan for calling Jupiter Ammon, this greatest of the Gods, this mighty chief:-" A Roman would never have said that Juppiter Ammon " was as great as Juppiter Capiteliaus; though the translator took it for eranted that all Juppiters must needs be the same. But a known passage " in Suetonius may correct his notion of the heathen theology.—Augustus " had built a temple to Juppiter Tonans, within the area of the capitol: " whereupon he had a dream, that Capitolinus Juppiter complained his wor-" shipers were drawn away: Augustus, in his dream, answered, that he 44 had dedicated Tonans there, only as the other's porter: and accordingly, " when he waked, he hung (as a porter's badge) that temple round with " bells.-Now if Capitolinus would not bear the very Thunderer by him, but " in quality of his porter; much less would he have suffered poor beggarly " Ammon (for all he was his name-sake) to be styled the mighty chief." p. 281. Here he had one poet to contradict; who "thought" (he fays) " all Jupiters the same." When he wrote his notes on Milton he had ano-Vol. I. Nnn ther

ther on his hands, who, it seems, did not think them to be the same, and he chuses to contradict him, likewise.

- " Ammonian Jove, or Capitoline, was scen
- "He with Olympias, this with her who bore
- " Scipio-" Par. Lost, Book ix. 508.

On which, the Critic observes with some contempt—" Then he brings " more storics-and (something strange) Two Jupiters." However in his former humour he will have it, that according to the popular theology, " all Jupiters were not the same." This will deserve to be confidered. The PEOPLE of Antiquity, in excess of folly and flattery, were sometimes wont to worship their good kings and benefactors under the name of Jupite, the Father of gods and nien, who, by thus lending his titles, received, in a little time, from posterity, all that worship which was first paid to the borrowers of his name; all their particular benefactors being swallowed up in him. And this was one principal reason of Jupiter's being a tutelary deity. But their PHILOSOPHERS, searching into the original of the Pagan theology, found out this loft fecret, That their kings had given occasion to the worship of this local tutelary Jupiter; whom, therefore, they regarded, as different Jupiters; that is, as so many kings who had affumed his name. Hence Varro in Tertullian reckons up no less than three hundred. The result of all this was, that in the popular theology there was but one Jupiter; in the philosophic theogony there were MANY. Just as, on the contrary, in the popular mythology there were many Gods: in the philosophic physiology, but one.

What shall we say then to the story from Suetonius, which is brought to prove that, according to the popular theology, all Jupiters were not the same? For surely the Romans regarded the Capitoline Jupiter and the Thunderer as the same person: If it be asked, Why then, had they different names? Suetonius will inform us: who relates that Augustus confecrated this temple to Jupiter Tonans, on his being preserved from a dreadful slash of lightning, in his Cantabrian expedition. And so Minucius Felix understood the matter, where he thus addresses the Pagan idolators—Quid ipse Jupiter vester! modo imberbis statuitur, modo barbatus locatur: et cum Hammon dicitur, habet cornua; et cum Capitolinus, tunc gerit sulmina. Cap. 21. And Eusebius, who was persectly well acquainted with the pagan theology, says expressy, that Ammon was one

of the Su-names of Jupiter-"τι δε Δία τον υπό τικαν ΑλΙΜΩΝΑ υξοσαγορισόperor. Prap. Evang. 1. iii. c. 3. And Cicero in his book of the nature of the Gods makes Cotta take it for granted, that the Capitoline and the Ammonian Jupiter were one and the fame; for, speaking of the form and figure of the Gods against Velleius, he says, Et quidem alia [species] nobis Capitolini, alia Atris, Ammonis Jovis. Where all the weight of the observation confifts in the supposition, that the Capitoline and Ammonian Jupiter were one and the same God. However, this must be confessed, that Capitolinus and Tonans appear to Augustus in a dream, as two different perfons, and are so considered by him when awake. The true solution of the difficulty is this: The Pagans worshipped their Gods under a material visible image. And their Statues, when confecrated, were supposed to be informed by an Intelligence, which the God, to whose worship they were erected, fent into them, as his Vicegerent. This general notion furnished Lucian with a pleasant incident in his Jupiter Tragicus, who, calling a grand synod of the Gods, is made to summon all those of gold, silver, ivory, stone, and copper. Now, in Augustus's dream, it was the Intelligence, or Vicegerent, in the statue of Jupiter Capitolinus, who complained of his new brother, in that of Tonans, as getting all the custom from him. This being the whole of the mystery, Jupiter's popular unity remains unshaken.

But what shall we say to the Critic? He censures Rowe, for not saying what Milton had said; and afterwards censures Milton for not saying what Rowe had said; and is yet so unlucky as to be doubly mistaken. The case is this, Where Milton speaks of two Jupiters, he is delivering the sense of the *Philosophers*; where Rowe says there was but one, he is delivering the sense of the *people*; and both were right. But the Critic, being in a contradicting humour, will have both to be in the wrong.

P. 431. [HH] Denique et antequam commerciis orbis pateret, & antequam gentes ritus suos moresque miscerent, unaquæque natio conditorem suum, aut ducem inclytum, aut reginam pudicam sexu suo fortiorem, aut alicujus muneris vel artis repertorem venerabatur, ut civem bonæ memoriæ. Sic et defunctis præmium, et suturis dabatur exemplum. Minuc. Fel. c. xx. Hence may be seen the falshood, both in sast and reasons of the Condation principle of the book called——I be grounds and reasons of the Christion Religion; that "it was a common and necessary method for new Reve-

" lations to be built and grounded on precedent Revelations." Chap. iv. p. 20, 26. See this position consuted more at large in the second volume of the Divine Legation, Book vi. sect. vi.

P. 436. [II] Ils me donnoient cette response assez plaisante; qu'ils ne pretendoient pas que leur Loi fût universelle-qu'ils ne pretendoient point que la nôtre sût fausse;-qu'il se pouvoit faire qu'elle sût bonne pour nous, et que Dieu Pouvoit Avoir FAIT PLUSIEURS CHEMINS DIFFERENS POUR ALLER AU CIEL; mais ils ne veulent pas entendre que la nôtre tant generale pour toute la terre, la leur ne peut être que fable et que pure invention. Voyages de Fr. Bernier, tom. ii. p. 138. Friar William de Rubruquis, a French Minorite, who travelled into Tartary in the year 1253, tells us, c. xliii. that Mangu Chan, Emperor of Tartary, talking to him of religion, said, " As God hath given unto the hand divers fingers, " so he hath given many ways to men to come unto bim; he hath given "the Scriptures unto you; but he hath given unto us foothsayers, and "we do that which they bid us, and we live in peace." The Jesuit Tachard tells us, that the king of Siam made much the same answer to the French embassador, who moved him, in his master's name, to embrace the Christian religion-Je m'etonne que le roy de France mon bon ami s'intresse si fort dans une affaire qui regarde Dieu, où il semble que Dieu même ne prenne aucune interest, et qu'il a entiérement laissé à nôtre discretion. Car ce vray Dieu, qui a créé le ciel et la terre et toutes les creatures qu'on y voit et qui leur a donné des natures et des inclinations si differentes, ne pouvoit-il pas, s'il cut voulu, en donnant aux hommes des corps et des ames semblabes, leur inspirer les mêmes sentimens pour la religion qu'il faloit suivre, et pour le culte qui luy étoit le plus agreable. et faire naître toutes les nations dans une même loy? Cet ordre parmi les hommes et cette unité de religion dependant absolument de la Providence divine, qui pouvoit aussi aisement introduire dans le monde que la diversité des sectes que s'y sont etablies de tout tems; ne doit on pas croire que le vray Dieu prend autant de plaisir à estre bonoré par des cultes et des ceremonies differentes, qu'à estre glorifié par une prodigieuse quantité de creatures qui le louent chacune à sa maniere? Cette beauté et cette varieté que nous admirons dans l'ordre naturelle, seroient elles moins admirables dans l'ordre surnaturel, ou moins dignes de la sagesse de Dieu ? Voyage de Siam, l. v. p. 231, 232. Amst. ed. 1688, The Abbé de Choisi. à coada coadjutor in this embassy, tells us, that the people were in the same way of thinking with their king.—Jusques ici ils [les missionnaires] n'ont pas fait grand chose dans le royaume de Siam. Les Siamois sont des esprits doux, qui n'aiment pas à disputer, et qui croyent la plupart de toutes les religions sont bonnes. Journal du Veyage de Siam, p. 200. ed. Amst. 1688.

P. 427. [KK] M. Voltaire, in his Le Siècle de Louis xIV, having spoken of this persecuting spirit amongst the followers of Christ, and observed that it was unknown to Paganism, says very gravely, that "after having long fearched for the cause of this difference between the two religions, both of which abounded with dogmatists and fanatics, he at length found it in the REPUBLICAN SPIRIT of the latter."-This was only mistaking the effett for the cause; and was no great matter in a writer, who in the same place can tell us, not as problematical, but as a known and acknowledged truth, that the Jews as well as Gentiles offered HUMAN sacrifices.—Cette fureur fut inconnuë au Paganisme. Il couvrit la terre de ténébres, mais il ne l'arrosa guerres que du sang des animaux; et si quelquesois chez LES JUIFS et chez les Païens on devoua des victimes bumaines, ces devoemens, tout horribles quils étaient, ne causérent point de guerres civiles.-J'AI RECHERCHE LONGTEMS comment et pourquoi cet esprit dogmatique, qui divisa les ecoles de l'antiquité payenne sans causer le moindre trouble, en a produit parmi nous de fi horribles.-Ne pourrait-on pas trouver peutêtre l'origine de cette nouvelle pesse qui a ravagé la terre, DANS L'ESPRIT REPUBLICAIN qui anima les premieres églises? Tom. ii. chap. 32. Du Calvinisme, p. 23. Strange! that he should mistake thus, when he had the true cause almost in view, as he had when he made the following observation: La religion des Païens ne confistait que dans la morale et dans des setes. And again, in his Abregé de l'Histoire Universelle-la raison en est, que les Payens dans leurs erreurs grossières n'avoient point de dogmes. p. 63. The first question is, How he came by his observation? That it was no deduction of his own appears from his not feeing the confequence of the fact contained in it, which was great indifference in Religion; for he goes on with that old encomium on Paganism, which our Freethinkers (who did not see from whence the indifference arose) are always ready to give unto it. See p. 164. vol. I. of the Abregé. The second question is, How the Christians came by their republican spirit? And this only is worth an answer. Without doubt it was the SPIRIT OF THEIR RE-

LIGION which gave it to them, when the followers of Paganism had it not. Christianity consists in the belief of certain propositions necessary to salvation; which peculiarity virtually condemns all other Religions. So that these other having the civil power on their side, would endeavour to suppress so inhospitable a Novelty. And this directly violating conscience, produced the Republican spirit, or the spirit of resistance; whose natural aim goes no further than Liberty; not to Dominion. Agreeably hereto, as is observed above, the first persecution for Religion was borne, not institled, by the Christian Church.

P. 439. [LL] To this old Pagan blindness, some modern Christians seem to have succeeded. They pretend, that what is said in Scripture of the dependency and soundation of Christianity on Judaism, is said by way of ACCOMMODATION to the prejudices of the Jews; but that when the preachers of the Gospel applied themselves to the Gentiles, they preached up Jesus simply, as a divine Messenger, omitting the Jewish characters of the Messah. Now, though nothing can be more false, or extravagant; yet the method employed by the first Preachers of the Gospel, to introduce Christianity amongst the Gentiles, gives this soolish Doctrine the little countenance it hath.

P. 439. [MM] This, the Father says on the authority of Tertullian and Eusebius. M. Le Clerc, in his Hist. Eccl. ann. xxix. rejects the whole story, though it be as strongly supported as a civil fact can well be. What he urges against it is fully obviated by the principles here delivered. Indeed the chief force of his objection arises from several false additions to the fact: A circumstance, which may be found in, and hath been brought to the discredit of, the best attested facts of antiquity; such as the deseat of Julian's attempt to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem. See my discourse on that subject.

P. 439. [NN] The not attending to the genius of Paganism, hath missed some of the best Critics into a very lame judgement on the first Apologists; who, they pretend, have unskilfully managed, in employing all their pains to evince what was so easy to be done, the falshood of Paganism, rather than to prove the truth of their own Religion. For, say these critics, were Paganism proved false, it did not follow that Christianity was true; but were the Christian Religion proved true, it followed that the Pagan was false. But the matter, we see, was just otherwise;

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and the Apologists acted with much good judgment. The truth of Christianity was acknowledged by the Pagans; they only wanted to have the compliment returned. As this could not be done, there was a necessity to assign the reasons of their resusal. And this gave birth to so many consutations ot idolatrous Worship. It is true, when their adversaries found them perfift in their unjociable pretences, they paid this harsh treatment in kind; and accused Christianity, in its turn, of falshood: but this was not till afterwards, and then faintly, and only by way of acquit. For want of due reflection on these things, both FARRICIUS and L'ENFANT have been betraved into this wrong judgment.—Facilius subscribo (says the first) judicio viri celeberrimi atque eruditissimi Jacobi L'ensant, in Diario Londiniensi, Hift. of the works of the Learned, A. 1709. p. 284. Il y a long tems, qu'en a eu lieu de remarquer, que la religion Chrétienne est une bonne cause, qui de tout tems a été sujette à être aussi mal desenduë, que mal attaquée. Ses premiers apologistes la soûtinrent mieux par leur zèle, par leur pieté, et par leurs soufrances, que par les Apologies, qu'ils nous en ont laissies.- Delestus argum. et syllabus script. qui relig. Christ. asser. p. 209.

- P. 439. [OO] This was not understood immediately by the Pagans, as appears from a remarkable passage of Lampridius in his life of Alexander Severus—Christo templum facere voluit [Alex. Severus] cumque inter deos recipere—Sed prohibitus est ab iis qui, consulentes sacra, repererant omnes Christianos suturos si id optato evenisset, et templa reliqua deserenda. Now those who rested this conclusion on an oracle, or divine premonition, could have no knowledge of the nature of Christianity.
- . P. 439. [PP] The reader will not be displeased to hear a curious story, from the life of St. Anscharius, which tends much to illustrate what we say, concerning the genius of Paganism, and the reason of its aversion to Christianity. This Saint travelling amongst the people of the North, sell into the following adventure:—Pervenit ad Byrcam, ubi invenit regem et multitudinem populi nimio errore consusam. Instigante enim Diabolo, contigit, eo ipso tempore, ut quidam illo adveniens diceret, se in conventu deorum, qui ipsam terram possidere credebantur adsusse, et ab iis missum, ut hæc regi et populis nuntiaret: Vos, inquiunt, nos vobis propitios diu habuistis, et terram incolatus vestri cum multa abundantia nostro adjutorio in pace et prosperitate longo tempore tenuistis. Vos quoque nobis facri-

ficia et vota debita persolvistis. At nunc et sacrificia solita subtrahitis, et vota spontanea segnius offertis, et, quod magis nobis displicet, alienum Deum fuper vos introducitis. Si itaque nos vobis propitios habere vultis, facrificia omissa augete, et vota majora persolvite. Alterius quoque Dei culturam, quæ contraria nobis docetur, ne apud vos recipiatis, et ejus servitio ne intendatis. Porro si etiam plures Deos babere desideratis, et vobis non sufficieus, Ericum quondam regem vestrum nos unanimes in collegium nostrum adsciscimus, ut sit unus de numero Deorum. Mabillon, Act. SS. Ord. S. Bened. Sæc. iv. p. 2. And how little these Pagans doubted of Christianity's being a real Revelation from a God, we may fee in another place of the same Life, where one of their piratical kings proposes, according to their custom, to enquire by divination what place they should next invade:-Interim rex præfatus cum Danis agere cœpit, ut forte perquirerent, utrum voluntate deorum locus ipse ab eis devastandus esset. Multi, inquit, ibi funt Dii potentes et magni, ibi etiam olim ecclefia constructa est, et cultura Christi à multis Christianis ibi excolitur, qui fortissimus est Deorum, et potest sperantibus in se quomodo vult auxiliari-Quæsitum est igitur fortibus, etc. Cap. xvi.

P. 440. [QQ] The very learned and acute M. Moyle fays, it was the greatest misfortune that could have befallen the Christians to be persecuted by so great and good a man [M. ANTONINE.] Post. Works, v. ii. p. 274. And Lord Shafiesbury observes, that nothing could have been a greater Longur er advantage to Christianity than to be persecuted by a NERO. Letter con. Enthus. Sect. III. We shall know what to think of these observations, when we have confidered how the cafe stood with regard to persecuting Emperors. In this class we find, on one side, Nero, Domitian, and the Maximiani; on the other, Trajan, the Antonines, and Valerian. Had the Persecutors been all like the first set, Unbelievers would have said, " No wonder that force and violence failed to root out the Christian sect, when employed by such Monsters as were hated by Gods and Men." Had the Persecutors, on the contrary, been all of the other kind, Unbelievers would then have faid, "There must needs have been something very wrong in the Christian practice, or very impudent in the imposture of their pretences, to provoke the fanguinary refentments of Emperors fo wife and element." But now, to the Christianian persecuted indifferently by the Good and Bad, is **fufficient** 

fufficient to reduce the enemies of Revelation to filence upon this topic: and is enough to fatisfy unprejudiced men, affisted in their judgment by what has been said above, that Providence appeared anxious (as it were) to shew, by this disposition of things, that matters very foreign to the merits of the case set this violent machine a-going; whose issue, it was decreed, should convince the World that all it's Power was weakness, when opposed to the progress of the Gospel.

- P. 441. [RR]. St. Paul tells us in what this bostile odium confisted, where speaking of their obstinate adherence to the Law against all the conviction of the Gospel, he says, And they pleased not God, and are CONTRARY TO ALL MEN, I Thess. They were not contrary to all men in their having different Rites; for each nation had rites different from one another: but in their condemning and reprobating all Rites but their own: which being (till the coming of Christianity) peculiar to themselves, was ascribed to their batred of mankind.
- P. 441. [SS] τὸ δὶ ἔτοιμον τῶτο, ἴνα ἀπὸ ἰδικῆς κρίσιως ἔρχηθαι, μὰ κατὰ ψιλὰν καράταξιν, ὡς οἰ Χριςιανοί. Lib. κὶ, § 3. But by this mere obstinacy, no more possibly might be meant than a rigid adherence to truth, which was not one of the distinguishing virtues of this royal Philosopher, as appears even from these Meditations. He represents L. Verus, his Colleague in the Empire, as a pattern of vigilance, sobriety and decency; and his Wife Faustina, as exemplary for her conjugal tenderness and sidelity. Might not then the same stoical pride which thought sit to cover Luxury and Lust under the names of Temperance and Chastity, be ready to call the divine Heroism of the Christian Martyrs a brutal obstinacy?
- P. 444. [TT]. St. Chrysostom supposed the Apostle was convened before the Areopagus as a CRIMINAL: and his authority hath made it the general opinion: From whence, the learned Author of a Tract intituled, Objervations on the conversion of St. Paul, hath received it. I would rather think, that the Philosophers, who encountered him, invited him thither as a PUBLIC BENEFACTOR, who had a new Worship to propose to the people. My reasons are these:
- 1. St. Paul was taken up to this Court by the Philosophers. Acts xvii. 19.—But the Philosophers, of that time, abhorred the character of delators or persecutors for Religion: this was a temper which sprung up amongst them with the progress of Christianity. The worst opinion they Vol. I.

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had of Paul was his being a babler, as the Fpicureans called him; though the Stoics thought more reverendly of his character, as a fetter forth of ftrange gods, Eirur daipoiler railalystait, a discoverer of some foreign Gods; for their hospitality extended to all strangers, (as Julian tells us) whether Gods or Men; and this could not but be a welcome office to a people disposed to raise alters even to Gods unknown, v. 22.

- 2. Their address to him, when they had brought him thither, [may we know what this doctrine, whereof thou speakes, is, v. 19.] implies rather a request to a Teacher than an interrogatory to a Criminal.
- 3. At least, the reason they give for their request goes no further than to imply a desire of satisfaction concerning a doubtful matter—For thou bringest certain strange things to our ears, v. 20. Evisorial time, certain foreign ceremonies or customs. And Strabo, as we see, tells us, the Athenians were most addicted to fareign worship.
- 4. But the very words of the historian fully explain the whole matter; for having told us that these Philosophers took Paul, and brought bim to Areopagus, he subjoins the motive of their proceeding in these words,—For all the Athenians, and strangers which were there [i. e. such as resided there for education, or out of love for the Athenian manners] spent their time in nothing else but either to tell or to hear some new thing. Now had the writer understood the citation to be of the criminal form, he would have given a more pertinent reason for their conduct; such as jealousy of danger to the State, or the established Religion.
- 5. St. Paul's speech to the Court hath not the least air of an apology suiting a person accused; but is one continued information of an important matter, such as besitted a Teacher or Benefactor to give.
- 6. Had he appeared as a Criminal, the charge against him would have been simply, The setting scrtb of strange Gods. Now this charge of less importance he declines to answer; and yet confesses a much greater crime, of which he was not accused, namely a condemnation of their established Worship——And the times of this ignorance God winked at, etc. v. 30.
- 7. The behaviour of the Court towards him shews he was not heard as a Criminal. He is neither acquitted nor condemned: but dismissed as a man, coram non judice.—And when they heard of the resurression of the dead, some mocked: and others said, We will hear thee again of this matter, v. 52.

- 8. He left the Court, as one thus dismissed.—So Paul departed from amongst them, v. 33. A strange way of intimating a juridical acquittal: but very naturally expressing a resentment for a slighted mission. For as some mocked, and others referred him to an indefinite time of audience, nothing was left him but to depart, and, according to his master's direction, to shake the dust from off his seet.
- 9. The historian's reflection on the whole supports all the foregoing reafons—Howbeit, certain men clave unto him, and believed, etc. v. 34. A
  very natural conclusion of the story, if only a transaction within the sphere
  of his Mission; for then, having related its ill success in general, fome mocking, and others putting off the hearing, he adds, that however it was not
  altogether without effect, for a few converts he did make, etc. But if we
  suppose it a narrative of a juridical process, we shall not find in it one circumstance of a proper relation. We are not so much as told whether he
  was acquitted or censured, or gave caution for a new appearance: But, as
  if so illustrious a prosecution (where the most learned of the Apostles
  was the Criminal, the Greek Philosophers his Accusers, and the Court of
  Areopagus his Judges) was below the historian's notice, we are told a
  thing quite foreign to the matter,—That he made but sew converts.

In a word, take this history in the sense here explained, and the whole narrative is simple, exact, and luminous: Take it in the other, and it scarce affords us one single quality of a pertinent relation, but is obscured from one end to the other, both by redundancies and omissions.

But had the interpreters not overlooked a plain fact, they would have given a different sense to this adventure. When Christianity first appeared, its two enemies, the Jews and Gentiles, had long administered their superstitions on very different principles. The Jews employed persecution; but the Gentiles gave a free toleration. And, though, soon after, the latter went into the intolerant measures of the other, yet, at this time, they still adhered to the ancient genius of Paganism. So that, of the many various persecutions of the Christian Teachers, recorded in The Asis of the Apostles, there is not one but what was begun and carried on by Jewish Magistrates, or at least excited by their emissaries; if we except that at Philippi, which too was on pretence of an injury to private property.—tuB the good Father, like more modern Interpreters, was full of the ideas of his own times, when the Persecution of the Christian Faith was far advanced, rather than those of St. Paul, when it was not yet begun. And so I leave it (as it is a mistake) to be obstinately persisted in.

P. 446. [UU]. Lib. ii. c. 8. Thus, I think, the words ought to be read and pointed. The common reading is, separatim nemo babesfit deos neve novos: sed ne advenas, nisi publice adscitos, privatim colunto: which is absurd and unintelligible. The manuscript quoted by Manutius reads, neve novos sive advenas. In a word, this Law seems not have been understood by the critics, from their not apprehending the nature of Paganisin, and the distinction between their tolerated and established religions. By the first branch, separatim nemo babessit deos, is meant that the Gods in general should not be worshipped in private conventicles, or be had, as it were, in propriety; (Suos deos, fays the comment) but lie in common to all the Citizens. And by the second branch, neve novos, neve advenas, nisi publice adfeites, privatim colunto, is meant that PARTICULARS should not worship any new or foreign god without licence and authority from the State. For we must remember what hath been said, in the first section of this book, concerning the two parts of Pagan religion; the one public, and the other private; the one, which had the State for its subject; the other, particulars. Now the State, as such, worshipped only the country gods: and this was properly the established religion. Particulars, as such, frequently grew fond of new and foreign gods, and modes of worship: and these, when allowed by the state, were their tolerated religions. Privatim therefore fignifies [by particulars] not [privately], which latter sense would make a contradiction in the sentence: Nist publice adscitos, privatim colunto: "Let them not worship them PRIVATELY, unless they be PUBLICLY al-" lowed." For how could those be faid to be privately worshipped, that were publicly owned? By dees novos, both here and in the comment, I suppose, is meant gods newly become such: which in another place he calls - quasi novos et adscriptitios cives in calum receptos. De nat. deor. 1. iii. c. 15. For the dii minorum gentium were a kind of every-day manufacture: fuch as Tully in the words immediately following thus describes: Ollos quos endo celo merita vocaverint; or, those who had newly discovered themselves to men. And by ADVENAS, the known local gods of other countries.

P. 446. [XX]. Lib. ii. c. 10. Thus I venture to correct the passage. The common editions have it—Non a facerdotibus, non a patribus acceptes deos, ita PLACET coli, si buic legi PARUERUNT ipsi. Gruter says: Ita me Deus amet, vix intelligo: hæreo, adhuc hæreo.—And none of the critics have pretended to make sense of it, but Petit, in his comment on the Attic laws:

De advenis Diis (fays be) fibi facit objici Tullius, an non liceat acceptos a facerdotibus aut a patribus alienigenas Deos colere? Respondet Cicero, licere, si, prout bae cavebatur lege, publice sint adsciti, non privata patrum aut sacerdotum auctoritate. Hic igitur verborum Tullii sensus est, qui latet et lectores fugit, qui excidit interrogationis nota, loco suo restituenda et reponenda ad hune modum. Suosque deos, aut novos aut alienigenas coli, confusionem babet religiorum, et ignetas ceremonias. Non a sucerdotibus, non a patribus acceptos deos? Ita placet coli, si buic legi PARUERINT ipfi. But as plaufible as this appears, it cannot, I think, be the true interpretation. Cicero is made to object impertinently: for who, from the words neve novos, neve advenas, nisi publice adscitos, privatim colunto, could form any suspicion that, by this law, the gods received by the priests or their forefathers (which certainly had long enjoyed the public allowance) were forbid to be worshipped? And those not publicly allowed, were forbid, from whatever quarter they were brought in. On the other hand, the propriety of the sense, given above, is seen from hence: 1. That the observation is of the nature of an example to a precept. He delivers a law concerning the licensing new religions by the Magistrate; and then takes notice that, had it been well observed in Rome, it had prevented a great deal of superstition. 2. The frequent breach of this law in Rome was a notorious fact; as appears by the speech of Posthumius in Livy, quoted above; and therefore very likely to be taken notice of by Tully, when he was upon this subject. And what St. Austin says, in his second book of the City of God, concerning the actions told of the gods in their public worship at Rome, and the lubricity of that worship, shews the seasonableness of this animadversion. Further, as the general sense of the law justifies the emendation in the Comment; so the words, aut novos, aut alienigenas, in the Comment, confirm the correction in the law. - By, confusionem religionum, I suppose Tully meant, such a consusion of ceremonies, as would leave no distinction between the established and the tolerated worship; and thereby reduce Religion to fo impotent a state, as to render it useless to civil Society: And by, ignotas ceremonias, rites, which the Magistrate, by reason of their celebration in private conventicles, could not take cognizance of: which might hurt the morals of fociety, by their lewdness, as happened in the Bacchanals at Rome; or endanger its peace by cabals and factions, supported and encouraged by the secrecy of their celebration. In the remaining words, Cicero gives a plain intimation, that, had this law been observed.

observed, many superstitions both in the established and tolerated religions had been avoided; which he hints had been introduced, without warrant from the State, by an interested Priesthood and an ignorant Ancestry. To conclude, the neglect of this law in Rome was very notorious: and, probably, owing to their having no standing judicature, as at Athens, for that purpose.

P. 452. [YY]. An intelligent missionary seemed to see where the thing stuck, when he says, Pour ce qui est des conversions, qu'on peut faire de ces gens-là touchant l'Evangile, on ne sauroit faire aucun fond sur eux. Ces sauvages, de même que tous ceux de l'Amerique, sont fort peu disposez aux lumieres de la foi, parce qu'ils sont brutaux et stupides, et que leurs mœurs sont extremement corrompues, et opposées au Christianisme. Nouvelle Decouv. dans l'Ameriq. Sept. par le R. P. Louis Hennepin Missionaire Recollect et Notaire Apostolique, à Utr. 1697. p. 221. The corrupt manners of the favages here complained of, as indisposing them to the Gospel, we find, from this writer and others, are of such a kind as arise only from the want of civil government; and which civil government every where rectifies; fuch as rapine, cruelty, and promiscuous mixtures. Hans Egede, a Danish missionary, who had been five and twenty years in Greenland, in his description of that country, speaks to the same effect: "It is a matter " which cannot be questioned (says this sensible writer) that, if you will es make a man a Christian out of a mere savage and wild man, you must " first make him a reasonable man.-It would contribute a great deal to " forward their conversion, if they could, by degrees, be brought into a " fettled way of life," &c. p. 211, 212.

P. 453. [ZZ]. This justice is due to the Jesuits, That they have been wifer in their attempts on Paraguay, and on the coast of California; where they have brought the savage inhabitants to a love of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The mission in California was founded at the expence of a certain marquis de Valero; for which the reverend person, whose name was permitted to be put to the Account of Lord Anson's Voyage Round the World, has suffered the Marquis to be called a most magnificent Bigot.

P. 453. [AAA]. This is the system of *Charlevoix* in the following passage; which is well worth the reader's notice: After having spoken of the shocking miseries attending the uncivilized condition of the Canadian savages, he goes on thus: Il saut no anmoins convenir que les choses ont

un peu changé sur tous ces points, depuis notre arrivée en ce pays; J'en ai même vû chercher à se procurer des commodités, dont ils auront peutêtre bientôt de la peine à se passer. Quelques-uns commencerent aussi à prendre un peu plus leurs précautions pour ne pas se trouver au depourvû, quand la chasse leur manquera; et parmi ceux, qui sont domiciliés dans la colonie, il y a bien peu à ajouter pour les faire arriver au point d'avoir un nécessaire raisonnable. Mais qu'il est à craindre que, quand ils en seront là, ils n'aillent bientôt plus loin, et ne donnent dans un superflu, qui les rende plus malheurcux encore, qu'ils ne sont presentement dans le sein de la plus grand indigence. Ce ne sera pas au moins les missionnaires, qui les exposerent à ce danger; persuadés qu'il est moralement impossible de bien prendre ce juste milieu, et de s'y borner, ils ont beaucoup mieux aimé partager avec ces peuples ce qu'il y a de penible dans leur maniere de vivre, que de leur ouvrir les yeux sur les moyens d'y trouver des adoucissemens. Aussi ceuxmêmes, qui sont tous les jours temoins de leurs souffrances, ont-ils encore bien de la peine à comprendre comment ils y peuvent resister, d'autant plus qu'elles sont sans relâche, et que toutes les saisons ont leurs incommodités particulieres. Journal Histor. d'un Voyage dans l'Ameriq. Septent. vol. VI. p. 57, 58.

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OF

## THE SECOND BOOK.

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#### SECT. I.

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THE END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.

#### ERRORS OF THE PRESS IN VOL. L

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Wol. I. P. 56. 1. 4. from the bottom, for far, r. for.
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- 96. I. 7. for the two writers mentioned above, r. Sextus Empiricus and Montagne.
- 139. l. 5. after querld, a period.
- 238. 1. 10. from the bottom, after favis a comma; and for Trajane, r. Trajane.
- 241. l. 7. after tulifis dele the comma.
- 242. I. 14. after gaudia and after Cyden add a comma.
- 250. l. 2. after fata dele the period.
- 260. l. 5. from the bottom for bellue, r. bellue.
- 266. l. 9. from the bottom for fpiscated, r. spissated.
- 269. 1. 4. from the bottom for mortality, r. merality.
- 274. l. 3. for crimini, r. crimine.
- 276. l. 15. for pænis, r. pænas.
  - 1. 3. from the bottom for subegitque, r. fubigitque.
- 306. 1. 10. from the bottom, for clausem, r. clausem.
- 310. l. 18. for ille, r. illi.
- 314. 1. 12. from the bottom for mijeris, r. mireris.
- 332. 1. 9. from the bottom for ferti, r. ferti.
  - m. Il. for temeritate curiolitate, r. temeraria curiolitate, for p. 119, r. 123.
- 377. l. 7. for Tufcular, r. Tufcular.
- 388. 1. 18. for antonomacite, r. antonomafice,
- 393. 1. 21. for Vadimoniis, r. Vadimonie.
- 437. I. t. for mankind. For, r. mankind, for.
- 442. 1. 7. for bis odium, r. this.
- 444. L. 7. from the bottom for oz, r. Qz.
- 459. 1. 6. for Atris, r. Afris.
- 460. L 8. for notre tant, r. notre étant.

#### A HOV WILLERS ENT NO SHORAL

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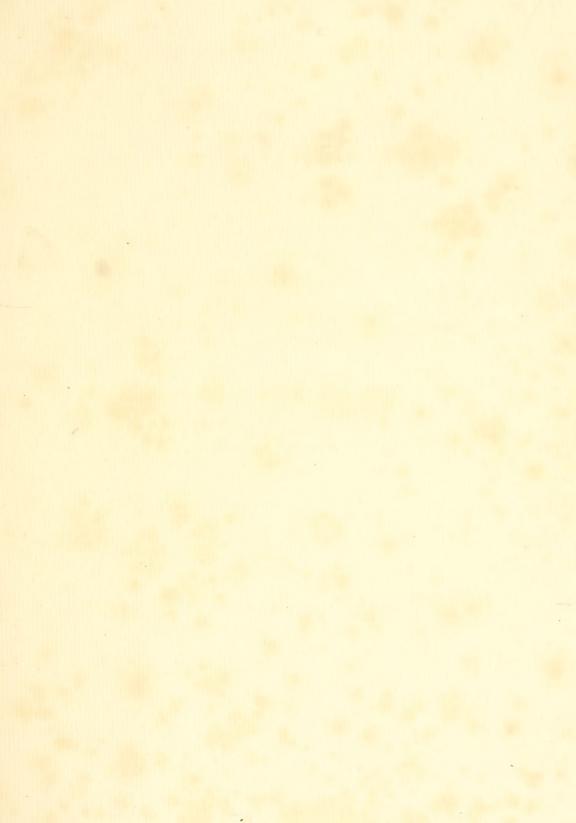
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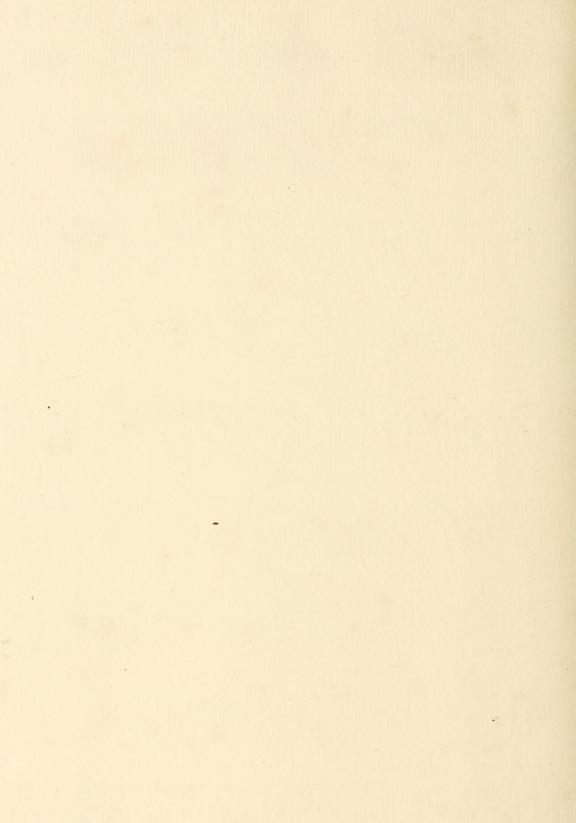
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